DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 227 051	SO 014 620
AUTHOR	Davis, James E., Ed.
TITLE	Planning a Social Studies Program: Activities, Guidelines, and Resources. (Revised Edition).
INSTITUTION	ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Boulder, Colo.; Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
SPONS AGENCY	National Inst. of Education (ED), Washington, DC.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-89994-266-0
PUB DATE	83
CONTRACT	400-78-0006
NOTE	212p.; Some pages may be marginally legible due to small print type.
AVAILABLE FROM	Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302 ($14.50).
PUB TYPE	Information Analyses - ERIC Information Analysis Products (071) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC09 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Cooperative Planning; *Curriculum Development; Educational Objectives; *Educational Planning; Elementary Secondary Education; *Group Activities; Guidelines; Models; Resource Materials; *Social Studies

ABSTRACT

A planning manual for teachers, parents, administrators, and students working on K-12 social studies curriculum development is presented. The manual discusses six problems facing social studies educators and then presents 12 sequenced group activities corresponding to the steps in the planning model. The six problems involve student learning and motivation; the focus on classroom management and control; lack of a variety of teaching and evaluation methods; a focus on specific facts and broad conclusions rather than on critical thinking and values; disagreement on goals and objectives; and insufficient public support. Instructions for participating in the 12-step model form the major portion of the document and include planning to plan, deciding on a rationale, selecting goals and objectives, modifying objectives, mapping the curriculum, and determining the scope of the program. Participants then engage in choosing content, identifying and selecting materials, tying program objectives to text objectives, planning for program evaluation, installing and maintaining the program, and modifying the program. Each step contains background information, an activity, and reproducible handouts. A list of resources, sources of instructional objectives, sample formats for scope-and-sequence statements, publishers of social studies materials, and a paper on evaluation as an instructional tool complete the guide. (KC)

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PLANNING A SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM: ACTIVITIES, GUIDELINES, AND RESOURCES

(Revised Edition)

Edited by James E. Davis

SO014620

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education
Boulder, Colorado

1983

ORDERING INFORMATION

This publication is available from:

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
855 Broadway
Boulder, CO 80302

ISBN 0-89994-266-0

This publication was prepared with funding from the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. 400-78-0006. The opinions expressed do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of NIE or ED.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Planning a Social Studies Program is actually the product of many individuals. In 1976, Roger Wangen, social studies consultant for the state of Minnesota, discussed the need for a social studies program planning model to include a series of meaningful activities that curriculum committees could use to develop a social studies program. Wangen's idea was more fully developed by Frances Haley of the Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC), Craig Kissock of the University of Minnesota (Morris), Gerald Marker of the Social Studies Development Center at Indiana University, Irving Morrissett of the SSEC, Sharryl Davis Hawke formerly of the SSEC and now editorial director of Graphic Learning Corporation, and myself.

The result was the first edition of *Planning a Social Studies Program*, published in 1977. Haley, Kissock, Marker, Hawke, and I wrote and contributed to a number of activities in that edition, which was edited by Haley and myself. Eileen Peters and Michael Zieky of the Educational Testing Service and Elvin Tyrone of the Texas Education Agency made useful contributions to the evaluation section of the first edition. Don Boeckman, social studies teacher in Adams County (Colorado) District 50, Francis McKibben, social studies teacher in Atlanta, Georgia, and Alan Tom of Washington University in St. Louis all made useful comments on the volume as a whole.

In planning for this second edition, Frances Haley and Sharryl Davis Hawke provided very valuable input and contributed a number of ideas that have improved the book. A significant addition to this volume is the inclusion of the paper, "Six Problems for Social Studies in the 1980s." This paper was one product of Project SPAN (Social Studies/Social Science Education: Priorities, Practices, and Needs), an SSEC project that examined the status of the field. The SPAN staff consisted of Irving Morrissett, project director and executive director of the SSEC; Douglas Superka, associate project director; and Sharryl Davis Hawke. The project also worked closely with more than a dozen consultants from around the nation.

Laurel Singleton's deft editorial pencil made significant improvements in the writing in this volume. Sally Groft ably demonstrated her word processing talents in typing the manuscript. Cindy Cook checked the accuracy of the references.

To all who helped with this volume, I offer my thanks. Your contributions make this book a significant resource for social studies educators.

James E. Davis

Boulder, Colorado
January 1983

1. HOW TO USE THE PLANNING BOOK

By James E. Davis

This planning book is designed primarily for use with groups working on curriculum change. Working individually, you may want to read through the sections and proceed with some of the activities on your own. However, we recommend that a representative committee made up of teachers, parents, administrators, and possibly students be engaged in the complex and difficult process of social studies curriculum planning.

Background Notes

Following this brief introduction is a statement of six problems facing social studies educators in the 1980s. This paper is presented here as important background information for those engaged in social studies curriculum planning.

The paper was a small, but very significant part of the Social Science Education Consortium's SPAN project. Project SPAN (Social Studies/Social Science Education: Priorities, Practices, and Needs) was conducted by the staff of the SSEC between September 1979 and February 1982. The project was funded by the National Science Foundation. SPAN staff undertook the task of assessing the current and recent state of social studies/social science education, of designating desired states to which social studies educators might or should aspire, and of shaping recommendations as to how the desired states might be approached.

In describing the current state of social studies/social science education, the project began with three coordinated studies of science education supported by the National Science Foundation during the period 1976-1978: a series of case studies conducted by the Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation at the University of Illinois, a national survey conducted by the Research Triangle Institute, and a survey of literature for the period 1955-1975, conducted by The Ohio State University with the assistance of the Social Science Education Consortium. These three studies, using three very different but congruent methodologies, provide a wealth of information about precollege education in natural science, mathematics, and social studies/social science education. In addition to these three fruitful sources, SPAN staff and consultants reviewed hundreds of other documents bearing on social studies and, through correspondence and at conferences, sought the advice and comments of many persons throughout the nation.

While curriculum planners must pay attention to concerns of the curriculum (e.g., rationale, objectives, content scope), other problem areas are also important in the planning and implementation process. The reader is encouraged to note the place of curriculum when looking at the interrelationships among the six problems (see p. 23). Curriculum problems are interactive with the problems of the profession, especially in terms of "turf" and "pecking order." Curriculum decisions affect teaching practices, which in turn affect student learning. Curriculum planners should also be aware of problems related to public support, especially those problem areas in social studies that are potentially controversial. Similarly, the culture of the school, a problem area that heretofore has not surfaced in much research literature, is very pervasive and needs thoughtful consideration by curriculum planning groups.

The Planning Model

Following the discussion of the six social studies problems is a presentation of the planning model that has grown out of extensive experience in working with curriculum planning groups over the past ten years. The model is not greatly different from the model used in the 1977 edition of this book, but two changes are worth noting. First, we have added a section on planning to plan. Our experience indicates that spending a good deal of time on the nature of the committee's task--what the planners feel to be the major problems facing them and what they can actually say about their social studies program--is useful. Second, we have put our freewheeling activity on determining the scope of the program after an activity that involves mapping the current curriculum. We believe this decision is advisable, in that when we knew what we have in the curriculum, we are in a better position to determine where we wish to go. Then we can begin the difficult process of selecting content and curriculum materials.

Doing the Activities

While some activities can be used separately (e.g., those on determining a program scope and identifying and selecting materials), we recommend conducting the activities pretty much in the order presented, if possible. The activities are designed and sequenced to enable a committee to work on all necessary aspects of the planning process, finishing their work with a useful and well-thought-out product.

All the activities are presented similarly. A brief introduction, called Background Notes, explains the reasons for doing the activity and provides some information on its content. A step-by-step presentation of how to conduct the activity lists the materials needed, the activity objectives, and suggested procedures. Handouts for each activity are printed on separate pages so they can be easily removed and copied. To make finding the handouts easier, the first handout for each activity has a black stripe down the edge.

Table 1 shows the approximate amount of time required to do each activity. A number of activities require some work to be completed outside the group setting; the group's work schedule must be planned to accommodate these requirements.

Resources

We have been very selective in identifying resources beyond those in the planning book itself. Included is an up-to-date bibliography from the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) system, organized by planning book section. Four appendices provide additional helps. The first lists sources of social studies objectives. The second presents some ways in which content can be presented in a social studies curriculum guide. The third lists publishers of social studies curriculum materials, and the fourth provides practical tips to teachers in evaluating students and in designing tests.

Table 1

TIME REQUIREMENTS FOR PLANNING ACTIVITIES

	TIME	
Activity	In Work Group	Outside Work Group
Planning To Plan		
--Assessment of SPAN-Identified Problems	1-2 hours	Can involve some investigation
--Memo To Social Studies Staff	1-2 hours	--
--Clarifying the Planning Task	1-2 hours	--
Deciding on a Rationale	1-2 hours	2-4 hours
Selecting Goals and Objectives	2-3 hours	--
Modifying Objectives	2-4 hours	May involve seeking additional resources
Mapping the Curriculum	3-4 hours	Can involve further investigation
Determining the Scope of the Program	2-3 hours	--
Choosing Content	Depends on how detailed content presentation will be	
Identifying and Selecting Materials	Varies with scope of analysis; allow ample time	
Tying Text Objectives to Program Goals and Student Outcomes	Varies with detail of task	Can be done by grade level or course
Planning for Program Evaluation	2-3 hours	Varies with extent of plan
Installing and Maintaining the Program	2-2½ hours	Varies with extent of action plan
Modifying the Program	Depends on plans	

2. SIX PROBLEMS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE 1980S

by Project SPAN Staff and Consultants

Introduction

The year is 1978. The event is a state-of-health examination. The referring physician is the National Science Foundation; examining physicians are the Project SPAN staff and consultants. The patient is social studies education.

Reports accompanying the patient are perplexing. His* curriculum organization is reported to be stable and strong, but his instructional practices are thought to be aging. Some prior examinations suggest that his curriculum materials are more alert and functional than ever; others suggest external appearances are masking important deficiencies. Reports of neglected relationships with his fellow curricular areas are numerous, as are observations about his inability to relate to his lay public. Some reports express grave concern about the signs of poor health among students with whom the patient has had contact. Other reports suggest that his students are in improving health since their recent treatment with basics education.

The examining physicians begin their work with commitment, but they are worried. Can an accurate diagnosis be made? Is the patient suffering minor afflictions, or is he terminally ill? Is a remedy available? Can it be effectively administered in time to assure recovery?

Although the initial activities of the SPAN project were not as dramatic as the above scenario suggests, the charge to the project to assess the current state of social studies education had some noticeable similarities to a comprehensive medical examination. We began, as do most physicians, by looking at the separate parts of the body social studies. For examination purposes we analyzed the state of health of eight critical elements: rationale, goals, and objectives; curriculum organization and content; curriculum materials; instructional practices; teacher characteristics; student characteristics; evaluation; and influences on the curriculum and classroom.

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*Male pronouns have been chosen to personify social studies education solely for convenience.

To arrive at a diagnosis for each element, we drew on past state-of-health reports, particularly the literature review, national survey, and case study research commissioned earlier by the National Science Foundation and described in the introduction to this publication. However, we also used other research and theoretical information in professional journals and books that updated or expanded on the NSF studies. In addition, we drew heavily on the experiences and insights of the SPAN examining physicians, whose collective knowledge helped make sense of data which often conflicted or confused.

Our examinations of the separate parts of social studies education resulted in a series of current-state reports on each of the critical elements. In writing those reports we realized that the patient was much more than the sum of his parts. Therefore, our separate diagnoses were used as the basis of a holistic look at the patient--how the functioning of his parts was affecting his overall condition. From this process it was clear that the patient could not be given a clean bill of health. Although the examining physicians identified a myriad of minor ailments, in the final diagnosis the patient was pronounced to be suffering from six major problems--problems general and critical enough to warrant attention in the 1980s. It is these six major problems which this paper addresses.

As a preface to statements of the six problems, a word should be said about our views on the accomplishments of American schools. Much of a positive nature can be said about the schooling of Americans. We have a high level of literacy, a high and increasing average number of years of schooling, students who show a zest for growth in certain aspects of their lives, many fine educational materials, a broad base of public support for education, and many creative and dedicated educational personnel at all levels of education.

Nevertheless, there is widespread criticism of the state of education in the United States--on the part of much of the public, of many educators, and of SPAN consultants and staff. Like many other recent studies of American education, SPAN focused on shortcomings and potential for improvement. While the heralding of positive accomplishments might be good for our collective ego, and perhaps has been neglected in recent years, only an analysis of shortcomings and a vision of potential are likely to bring about improvements.

Briefly stated, the problems we have identified are:

1. Student Learning: Many students leave school without the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are important and desirable outcomes of social studies programs. In addition, many students do not like or value social studies as much as other subjects.

2. The Culture of the School: The culture and organization of schools, especially at the secondary level, focus much of the energy of teachers and administrators on matters of management and control rather than on the teaching and learning of social studies--particularly the teaching and learning of higher-level thinking skills, participation skills, and democratic values.

3. Teaching Practices: Instruction in social studies is generally characterized by lack of variety in teaching methods and evaluation practices, by limited kinds of learning experiences, and by inattention to the implications of educational research.

4. The Curriculum: The social studies curriculum--courses, materials, and content--is focused primarily on specific facts and broad conclusions from history and other social science disciplines rather than on critical thinking skills, social science concepts, values and attitudes, and social participation. The curriculum, moreover, is not based on student developmental needs and does not emphasize important societal issues and effective participation in the social world.

5. The Social Studies Profession: Parts of the social studies profession, in varying degrees, are characterized by considerable disagreement on the most important goals and objectives of social studies and by a decided lack of direction, satisfaction, opportunities for professional growth, and constructive interaction among the various participants.

6. Public Support: There is insufficient public support for and understanding of social studies programs that are balanced, judicious in responding to special interests, supportive of democratic values, scientifically and educationally sound, and relevant to the present and future lives of students.

These problem statements helped us clarify and refine our desired states and provided a framework and focus for making recommendations for improving social studies. The problems are stated broadly in order to paint a general picture of major needs in social studies.

Before these problems are presented in greater detail, three points need to be clarified. First, the data analyzed by SPAN and the reactions of social studies educators throughout the country indicate that these are problems for social studies "generally" throughout the nation. They are not necessarily, however, serious problems for every school or social studies program in the country. The SPAN current-state reports also indicate some instances of teachers, programs, and schools that are doing exciting and positive things in social studies. Individual schools and districts need to determine the extent to which these six problems exist in their particular circumstances.

Second, these are not new or unique problems. Indeed, a historical review of social studies education prepared for the SPAN project by Hazel Hertzberg (1981) makes clear the cyclical nature of perceived problems and attempted solutions in social studies education. The memories of many social studies educators will also attest to the reappearing or continuing nature of these problems.

Finally, these problems are not unique to social studies. They plague other subject areas and all of education in some respects and to some extent. However, by attempting to specify the unique relationship of the problems to social studies education, we hope to point the direction for recommendations that will address the problems and improve social studies education in the 1980s.

Problem 1: Student Learning

Many students leave school without the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are important and desirable outcomes of social studies programs. In addition, many students do not like or value social studies as much as other subjects.

Results from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) give useful indications of what social studies students do and do not know. Most students have some knowledge of the basic features of U.S. government and the major events in U.S. history. For example, most 13-

and 17-year-olds know that "the purpose of the Declaration of Independence was to declare the colonies free from Great Britain." However, fewer can correctly identify "a reason that the American colonies rebelled against Great Britain" (NAEP 1978b, pp. 8-9). Most 13-year-olds can name the current president and vice president and know that Congress is composed of two houses. However, the majority do not know their senators, governors, and congressmen or that there are two senators from each state in the U.S. Senate (NAEP 1976, p. 76).

The situation is not significantly different in other subject areas (for example, see Hansen 1977, pp. 61-80; Flieger 1977; Wiley 1977, p. 247), nor with respect to social studies skills and attitudes. Most students are able to employ basic social studies skills such as identifying sources of information and reading simple graphs, but are not able to interpret more complex tables and graphs, make logical inferences from data, or identify the central problem discussed by a group of speakers (NAEP 1978b, pp. 17-28). In the area of political attitudes and values, most students express support for basic democratic values such as constitutional rights, representative democracy, respect for the rights of others, the need for laws, and equal opportunity for all (NAEP 1978a). There are, however, numerous indications that student behavior is not consistently based on these values. Moreover, the proportions of junior and senior high students expressing positive attitudes toward human rights and democratic values declined from 1969 to 1976 (NAEP 1978a, pp. 7, 15).

Thus, the knowledge, skills, and values of social studies students appear to be inadequate, with little or no improvement occurring in recent years. With few exceptions, comparisons of NAEP scores from 1969 to 1976 and 1972 to 1976 and MAT (Metropolitan Achievement Test) scores from 1970 to 1978 reveal the following results for social studies knowledge, skills, and attitudes: little or no improvement for elementary students, no improvement and slight declines for junior high students, significant declines for high school students (NAEP 1978a; NAEP 1978b; Copperman 1979). Reference to a different data base--reviews of research--leads to similarly discouraging news related to attitudes and values. Programs designed to improve students' political attitudes, values clarification abilities, and levels of moral reasoning have not demonstrated substantial success (Ehman 1977; Ehman 1979; Leming 1979; Lockwood 1978).

Finally, students do not like social studies very much and do not believe the subject is very important to their lives after school. While there are exceptions, most of the research evidence from questionnaires and observations points to widespread lack of student interest and motivation (Wiley 1977, pp. 203-204; Stake and Easley 1978; Weiss 1978, p. B130; Wright 1979, pp. 7-10). Student lack of interest, indifference, and boredom seem to be prevalent in social studies classes, especially at the secondary level (Stake and Easley 1978; Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979a, pp. 12-13).

To some extent, these negative feelings are related to secondary students' general lack of interest in school and academic pursuits. But even within that context social studies does not fare well. Four out of five secondary social studies teachers see lack of student interest as a "serious problem" or "somewhat a problem," compared with two out of three secondary science teachers (Weiss 1978, pp. B128-130). Also, secondary students believe that social studies is less useful and less important to their future needs than English and math (Wiley 1977, p. 204; Wright 1980). This low rating of social studies is not confined to junior and senior high school. While elementary teachers do not report significant problems with lack of student interest in social studies (Weiss 1978, p. B129), primary and intermediate students seem to like social studies less than any other subject (Wright 1980). In Goodlad's study of schooling, for example, 73.6 percent of the primary students said they like social studies, but 80.6 percent said they like science, 86.1 percent reading, 76.1 percent math, and 94.5 percent art. While 80 percent of the intermediate students said they like art, the percentages were 57 for science, 56 for math, 45 for reading, and only 35 percent for social studies (Wright 1980).

Clearly, lack of student interest and learning in social studies is a major problem to be addressed in the 1980s. Why does this problem exist? Explanations may lie in descriptions of the five other problems facing social studies education.

Problem 2: The Culture of the School

The culture and organization of schools, especially at the secondary level, focus much of the energy of teachers and administrators on matters of management and control rather than on the teaching and learning of social studies--particularly the teaching and learning of higher-level thinking skills, participation skills, and democratic values.

This problem is not unique to social studies. The power, stability, and complexity of the school and classroom culture were largely underestimated or ignored by curriculum reformers in the 1960s and 1970s. This reality, however, pervades, influences, and often hinders academic pursuits--particularly efforts to bring about change--in the elementary, junior, and senior high schools. This important conclusion from the classic studies of the past decade (for example, Sarason 1971; Jackson 1968; Cusick 1973; Lortie 1975; Goodlad and Klein 1970) has been confirmed by recent studies (for example, Stake and Easley 1978; Serow and Stike 1978) and analyses (for example, Holman 1980; Grannis 1980; Anderson 1982).

Schools, especially at the secondary level, are characterized by a high degree of specialization, hierarchy, transient relationships, work based on coercion or extrinsic (rather than intrinsic) rewards, and major emphasis upon institutional maintenance, which often conflicts with high-quality service for "clients." The central force underlying the school culture is its commitment to socialization--preparing young people to be good students for the following grades and good citizens in adult society, with emphasis on the existing norms and practices (Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979a, pp. 11-12). Within the school, this means teaching students to respond promptly to bells, to respect school property, and to obey school rules. Within the classroom, this includes teaching students to pay attention to directions, to be quiet during class presentations, to submit assignments on time, to respect the rights of other students, and to obey the teacher's rules.

Consistent with these efforts at socialization, teachers and administrators devote considerable time and energy to maintaining order and discipline and managing groups of students. Often, the teaching of subject matter is either sacrificed (e.g., to take attendance, to issue late slips, or to stop a student from daydreaming) or used as a management device (e.g., by using class time to have students write answers to the questions at the end of a chapter) (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 16:25). In addition to such overt efforts at socialization, most aspects of the "hidden curriculum" convey similar messages (e.g., the physical setup of the classroom, the teacher's benevolent authoritarian posture, and the authority structure of the school). Teacher-to-student interaction is the dominant mode of communication rather than a combination that includes, for example, student-to-student or student-to-teacher interaction (Marker 1980, pp. 74-76; Fielding 1981).

Many other aspects of the school culture affect students and do not necessarily enhance academic learning, including learning in social studies. These include the sheer size of many schools, fragmented time schedules, and the nature of tests and grading systems. While teachers, administrators, and community members may share a commitment to the effective socialization of students (Stake and Easley 1978, pp. 19:5-7) and the maintenance of a benevolent authoritarian structure, their diverse positions in the system sometimes result in conflicts in immediate goals. These conflicts surface clearly in the planning of field trips, for example. A teacher would like to have students engage in a community-based activity, but the principal is worried about transportation and lawsuits, the assistant principal about accurate attendance records, and the counselor or other teachers about students' missing other classes.

Such elements of the student subculture as friendships, sex, sports, and other extracurricular activities also turn attention away from organized learning efforts ("Sex Rated Below Friends, School, and Sports" 1979). The fragmentation of effort may be intensified in a large school where it is impossible to relate to and know everyone personally (Panel on Youth, President's Science Advisory Committee 1974, pp. 154-156). Development of a humane climate and sense of community in large schools may also be more difficult, thereby hindering identification with the school, turning attention away from the central goal of schooling, and possibly encouraging vandalism and violence.

While all curricular areas feel the restrictions and demands of the culture of the school, social studies is unique in the degree to which it finds its learning objectives in conflict with that culture. Social studies is charged with teaching the fundamentals of democracy, yet schools are (perhaps necessarily so) authoritarian systems. The highest-level skill and value objectives in social studies call for students to become active, participatory decision makers, yet there is little opportunity within the school setting for these skills to be practiced and evaluated. Consequently, while teachers of other subject areas may find their teaching objectives limited by the school culture, social studies teachers must confront with their students the ever-present discrepancy between what they preach (democratic principles) and what they are required to practice.

Problem 3: Teaching Practices

Instruction in social studies is generally characterized by lack of variety in teaching methods and evaluation practices, by limited kinds of learning experiences, and by inattention to the implications of educational research.

The dominant methods of instruction in social studies are lecture and discussion/recitation based on textbooks (Weiss 1978, pp. B64-67; Stake and Easley 1978, pp. 13:59-66; Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979b, p. 151; Patrick with Hawke 1982; Fancett and Hawke 1982). In a typical social studies lesson, the teacher assigns students a section of the text to read, follows with a recitation based on the reading, informally lectures on the topic, engages students in a discussion that involves students' answering questions, or has students complete written worksheets in class or as homework. While some of these materials include decision-making and valuing questions, little social studies instruction engages students in using a variety of materials or participating in active experiences such as role plays, action projects, or inquiry activities, either in or out of the classroom. Most instruction in social studies occurs in large-group settings with little use of small-group or individual approaches (Weiss 1978, p. 111).

The evaluation practices most commonly used in social studies classrooms tend to reinforce the dominant instructional practices. The predominant evaluation procedures are objective and essay tests, assessment of participation in class discussions, and grading of student papers (Wiley 1977, p. 79). An examination of the kinds of tests, homework assignments, and class discussion tasks commonly used indicates that teachers evaluate students on only a very narrow range of variables, primarily low-level cognitive operations such as recall of information and application of concepts (Rappaport 1978, p. 91). Generally avoided in evaluation are synthesis and evaluation, reasoning skills, and critical and creative thinking. Although paper-and-pencil tests can measure higher-level thinking operations, most teacher-made tests in fact do not (Stake and Easley 1978, pp. 15: 14-20).

In recent years, considerable research on learning and student development has been done, but few social studies teachers are aware of or influenced by the results of such research (Wiley 1977, p. 9). While Shaver (1979) and others have compellingly pointed out the dangers in trying to apply the results of educational research to classroom practice, some recent research syntheses suggest useful principles for instructional improvement. One such example is an article by Peter Martorella in Social Education which offers several research implications for instruction; for example, "The use of questions organized in some logical sequence in teaching has a significantly positive effect on learning compared to alternative approaches. . . . In addition, increasing the amount of time given for students to respond to questions tends to improve the quality of responses" (Martorella 1979, pp. 599-601; see also Rowe 1978, pp. 271-298).

Responsibility for the failure to make use of such research lies in part with researchers who do not effectively communicate the results and implications of their work to teachers, in part with teachers who are unreceptive to the work of "those people in ivory towers," and in part with the lack of opportunities for researchers and teachers to interact with each other. Whatever the reasons, most instruction in social studies (and other areas) is not based on or responsive to students' cognitive and social developmental needs and abilities, as these are revealed by research.

There are many reasons for teachers' heavy reliance on textbooks, for the lack of variety in their instructional practices, and for their inattention to new research. Although some teachers complain about the reading levels of texts, most teachers generally like to use textbooks (EPIE 1976, p. 23; Klein, Tye, and Wright 1979). Textbooks help teachers organize the various bodies of knowledge they teach, particularly if they must teach disciplines other than those in which they have formal training. In an era of concern about "back-to-basics" and proficiency testing, the text is an accepted, concrete resource for student learning. While many materials incorporating varied learning activities have been developed, few preservice or inservice training programs have emphasized practical ways to use these techniques. Teachers told case-study investigators that their resource people "largely did not know the realities of their classroom situations" (Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979a, p. 16).

Teachers who know about and are predisposed to use a variety of instructional practices may find it difficult to do so. Seldom do teachers have role models to emulate, having studied under college professors who primarily lecture. New teachers' models are generally restricted to other teachers on their school faculty, most of whom have a very small repertoire of teaching strategies. Difficulties are also posed because many of the instructional practices that involve students in active learning require a substantial amount of preparation time (Wiley 1977, p. 309). Teachers also express concern about the frustrations that may be experienced by students who cannot deal with the tasks involved in active learning (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 12:7).

Perhaps the most important reason for teachers' use of a limited range of activities is fear that inquiry and action-oriented practices will make the management and control of students too difficult. Teachers' primary concerns "center on classroom management and socialization--the matters that must be handled to survive each day and [to] gain and maintain respect in a social system made up of other teachers, administrators, parents, and students" (Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979b, p. 152). In general, the strategies teachers use are "those that are considered to be safe in the classroom, the school, and the community. The more innovative teachers seem to sense how far out they can go and do not cross that line" (Fancett and Hawke 1982).

In pointing up the failure of many social studies teachers to use a variety of instructional practices, we are not suggesting that this situation is limited to social studies teachers. Indeed, all three NSF studies indicate that the condition also exists in other discipline areas. Similarly, in noting teachers' failure to use varied methods, we are not suggesting that instructional variety is necessarily the solution to all problems of instruction. However, the value and importance of variety in stimulating student interest and learning has been demonstrated in social studies (Tucker 1977) as well as in general teacher-effectiveness research (Rosenshine and Furst 1971).

Problem 4: The Curriculum

> The social studies curriculum--courses, materials, and content--is focused primarily on specific facts and broad conclusions from history and other social science disciplines rather than on critical thinking skills, social science concepts, values and attitudes, and social participation. The curriculum, moreover, is not based on student developmental needs and does not emphasize important societal issues and effective participation in the social world.

The social studies curriculum today is based on a pattern of topics and subjects that was established more than 50 years ago (Lengel and Superka 1982; Hertzberg 1981). The content and organization of these courses are not likely to encompass ideas and skills focused on the current and future needs of students and society (Wiley 1977, pp. 80-115; Shaver, Davis, and Helburn 1979b, pp. 151-152). Instead, they focus on topics, facts, places, time periods, and broad conclusions of history, giving little emphasis to social science concepts, critical thinking skills, and social participation. Perpetuating these curriculum characteristics are commercially published curriculum materials that present information to fit traditional expectations (Patrick with Hawke 1982).

The traditional curriculum gives little recognition to the developmental characteristics and needs of students. Subject matter is placed at various grade levels with little regard to what is known of children's cognitive and social development. Courses in world history or world geography, for example, are taught to seventh-graders, who are engaged in an intense period of self-discovery.

Over the years, particularly the past 15 years, the curriculum has been challenged by many attempts to bring social science, current issues, and social concerns into the curriculum. The Wiley literature review contains nine single-spaced pages of topics and subjects that have been adopted by one or more schools, including legal education, multicultural education, career education, and consumer education (Wiley 1977, Appendix A-4, pp. 24-32). These topics have been thought by many to be worthy, legitimate additions to social studies, and considerable attention has been given to infusing their messages into existing courses. However, with some exceptions--attention to ethnic diversity in particular--schools have made only temporary commitments to such topics, replacing them after a trial period with traditional courses or gradually reducing the time devoted to them. The curriculum has not facilitated the inclusion of these courses.

From a practical standpoint, few incentives to change the curriculum pattern exist, while many forces weigh against change. Laws in 41 states require that American and/or state history be taught at elementary, secondary, or both levels. Civics or government is required in 31 states at one or both levels (Henning et al. 1979, pp. 52-56). Perhaps the strongest force supporting the status quo is tradition. With a 60-year history behind it, the present curriculum pattern is comfortable and comforting to social studies teachers, administrators, and parents, most of whom experienced the pattern themselves as students (Lengel and Superka 1982).

Aware of existing laws, examinations, and traditions, publishers produce commercial materials that fit with and support the status quo. Paul Goldstein, who made a critical study of textbook development, writes, "The surest, least costly way to succeed with new materials is to follow the patterns successfully established by materials already in use" (Goldstein 1978, p. 5). The result is limited alternatives for teachers; if they wish to break the curricular pattern, they must write their own materials. Few choose to do so (EPIE 1976, p. 8).

What we have, then, is not a nationally imposed curriculum, but "a locally accepted nationwide curriculum" (Shaver, Davis, and Helburn

1979a, p. 24). Despite numerous calls to reorganize the social studies curriculum, few comprehensive K-12 curriculum organizational schemes have been advanced, and none has been adopted widely (Schneider 1980, pp. 13-17).

Problem 5: The Social Studies Profession

Parts of the social studies profession, in varying degrees, are characterized by considerable disagreement on the most important goals and objectives of social studies and by a decided lack of direction, satisfaction, opportunities for professional growth, and constructive interaction among the various participants.

Precollege teaching is a relatively isolating activity. Teachers generally work alone with their students; only rarely do they work together in team teaching arrangements or on cooperative, education-related tasks. Although about half of the social studies teachers in the RTI study felt that lack of articulation between teachers of different grade levels was a problem (Weiss 1978, pp. B129-130), few attempts to achieve coordination were reported in the case studies (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 13:29).

Most teachers have few sources of information or new ideas that they see as accessible and reliable. They rate other teachers as their best sources of information about educational developments, even though they have few opportunities for professional communication with their peers (Weiss 1978, p. 9). Teachers do not consider their administrators or supervisors very useful or helpful, nor do they highly value inservice consultants or professional organizations (Weiss 1978, p. 119). Relatively few social studies teachers belong to professional organizations (Wright 1979), and fewer than 10 percent of teachers in the RTI study viewed teachers' associations as a valuable source of new educational ideas (Weiss 1978, p. B119). The 17,000 members of the National Council for the Social Studies constitute a small portion of the estimated 150,000 to 200,000 teachers of social studies.

At teaching levels other than elementary and secondary there is also little interaction. The relationship between teacher educators and other college professors is characterized by limited communication, some distrust, and lack of mutual credibility; a similar relationship exists between college professors and precollege teachers. Although publishers of social studies materials communicate with some teachers, most teachers never have an opportunity to work with curriculum developers. Nor do they come into contact with educational researchers, except possibly as subjects in studies; seldom are they asked to consult on decisions about what questions to research--consultation that might improve research by making it more relevant to teachers' interests and needs and to school realities (Shaver 1979).

A major factor contributing to the lack of constructive communication is the existence of isolated subcultures within the profession--groups of elementary teachers, secondary history teachers, teacher educators, and curriculum developers, to name a few. Interaction among the various subcultures is inhibited by differences in needs, values, and reference groups, as well as by the well-established pecking order among different levels of education, which places graduate teaching at the top and elementary teaching at the bottom. Members of the various subcultures are most often brought together in settings that reinforce a "pecking order"; for example, precollege teachers take college classes to learn from college professors, while college professors seldom participate in classroom teachers' sessions at professional meetings. The differences in interest and values among members of the various subcultures and the peck-order phenomenon clearly overshadow the common concern for effective social studies education, dividing the profession into special-interest cliques.

For teachers, lack of opportunity for constructive interaction is compounded by limited opportunities for personal growth, advancement, and renewal. The proliferation of articles in both professional and popular magazines concerning teacher frustration and "teacher burnout" points up the acuteness of this problem for all teachers. Another reason for burnout that emerged from the NSF case studies is the myriad demands placed on teachers:

> Teachers are at times expected to be surrogate parents, grandparents, siblings, priests, therapists, wardens, biographers, babysitters, and friends. They are intermediaries for the school [in which they are] expected to

> feed the hungry, restore the deprived, redirect the alienated, energize the lethargic, and calm the hyperactive, as well, of course, as educate the ignorant, train the naive, and inspire the downhearted. Many enjoy the challenge. Others are frustrated (Stake and Easley 1978, pp. B:15-16).

Compounding the pressure to meet diverse student needs are burgeoning requirements to keep records and write reports. "I always thought the main goal of education was teaching kids; now I find out that the main goal is management," complained a veteran teacher (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 16:55).

Although such frustrations are common to teachers in all subject areas, it is disconcerting to find that social studies teachers seem to be suffering more acutely than other teachers. Goodlad's study of 38 schools found that fewer social studies teachers feel satisfied with their profession than do teachers of other subject areas. In assessing their job performance, social studies teachers were only mildly satisfied with their teaching performance in any of nine specific categories (Wright 1980). These conclusions are consistent with the RTI finding that fewer social studies teachers than other teachers believe their subject is useful to students (Weiss 1978, p. 158).

At all levels of the profession there continues to be confusion about the basic purpose of social studies. Classroom teachers are concerned about the usefulness of social studies for their students. The continuing debate in the professional literature about what social studies is, or should be, reflects the theorists' inability to agree on basic purposes (Morrissett and Haas 1982). As the debate continues, pressures from the back-to-basics movement and directives for accountability are forcing local educators to define their goals and objectives for social studies. Meanwhile, new topic areas continue to bombard the field, leading to situations such as the one described in an NSF case study:

> Unfortunately, social science is too often seen as a synonym for a collection of courses--often lacking a sequential development--a course here and a course there (Stake and Easley 1978, p. 10:8).

Looking at these data, we are left with the impression of a profession which is diffused in its goals and directions, which lacks constructive channels of communication, and in which there is little sense of "profession" among its various subcultures.

Problem 6: Public Support

There is insufficient public support for and understanding of social studies programs that are balanced, judicious in responding to special interests, supportive of democratic values, scientifically and educationally sound, and relevant to the present and future lives of students.

Social studies suffers from a variety of conflicting attitudes and responses on the part of the public. On the one hand, there is strong public support for the teaching of certain social science and history subjects. For example, in a 1979 Gallup poll, the public rated two social studies courses--civics/government and U.S. history--among the top four "essential subjects" (Gallup 1979, p. 40). U.S. history and government courses are the subjects most frequently required for high school graduation (Weiss 1978, pp. 23-24).

On the other hand, there is evidence that social studies is not seen as being very useful--for example, as being less useful for later life than English, mathematics, commercial courses, shop, and extracurricular activities (Gallup 1978, p. 44). Still another aspect of the public's low esteem for social studies is the decline in attention and support given to social studies in the elementary grades; much of this neglect is attributable to public concern for reading and computation skills. Substantially less time is devoted to social studies than to reading or math in the elementary grades, particularly in grades K-3 (Weiss 1978, pp. 50-51; Lengel and Superka 1982). Informal reports indicate that in some districts elementary social studies programs are fighting for their very existence.

One reason for the low value placed on social studies may be that most citizens' views of the subject reflect their own school experiences. Like today's students, adults do not recall that social studies was useful to their lives after school. Moreover, while people may lend verbal support to citizenship goals (a central aspect of social studies, presumably furthered by the study of history and government), the overwhelming majority of the public spend little time in citizenship pursuits (Marker 1980, pp. 79-80).

When strong public interest in social studies is shown, it is often the interest of a small group, focused on a particular topic or subject. Special-interest groups have made intensive efforts to secure more space in the curriculum for certain topics or subjects and to inject certain views into those areas of study--often without consideration for how those topics and views fit into the total social studies curriculum. The efforts of special-interest groups with respect to ethnic groups, women, and free enterprise are examples.

Some special-interest pressures on the curriculum are directed toward censorship. While sex education and evolution controversies have sometimes been directed toward social studies instruction, censorship battles in social studies have been staged more commonly over values education, patriotism, and teaching about religion. The Man: A Course of Study (MACOS) furor is one which will be long remembered in social studies history.

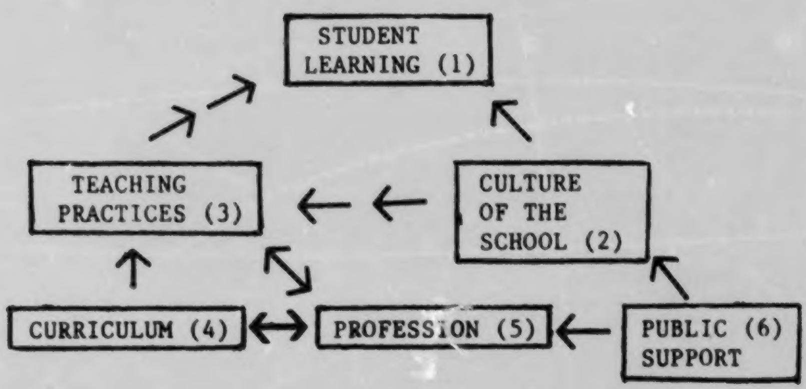
Thus, the social studies profession has failed to communicate effectively what a broad and balanced social studies program is and can be and its crucial importance at all levels of education. This failure has resulted in the narrow view of social studies held by many people. Social studies professionals have seldom made clear to the public the importance of social studies in helping students examine political and social issues; to understand the influence of such problems as classism, racism, and sexism on their lives; to value diversity in an interdependent world; to resolve personal problems; and to make rational decisions about their private and public lives. Thus, social studies retains public support for only a small portion of the kind of program most educators agree is desirable.

Interrelationships Among the Six Problems

While these six problems have been described and explained separately, they are highly interrelated. Figure 1 illustrates Project SPAN's conception of that interrelationship.

Figure 1

INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE SIX PROBLEMS



While many more arrows could be drawn, we have restricted the number to indicate the tendencies and directions of influence we believe to be the strongest. As the figure shows, we believe that students' lack of interest and learning of social studies is the fundamental or ultimate problem; the other five problems are related and contributing factors.

Instruction, mostly teacher-led and classroom-based, and the culture of the school are considered the two most direct and potent influences on student learning and attitudes in social studies. In addition to having direct effects on student learning, the school culture exerts great influence on the nature of social studies instruction. Demands for socialization and control, for example, discourage elementary-level teachers from using curriculum materials that do not rely heavily on "seatwork" activities.

The social studies curriculum and profession, in turn, have a direct impact on instruction and on one another. Courses, curriculum guides, textbooks and other materials, curriculum planning, teacher-training programs, and professional conferences are examples of ways in which curriculum and the profession interact with each other and with classroom instruction. Finally, the public--through government agencies, special-interest groups, community groups, and personal involvement--exerts direct influence on both the social studies profession and the school culture. These are the principal interrelationships; still others could be specified.

Examining two relatively recent movements in the light of these interrelationships produces the following interpretation. The "new social studies" reform efforts of the 1960s and early 1970s emanated primarily from university-based disciplinary academics and from some teacher educators within the profession (#5). Responding partly to post-Sputnik social forces, these groups focused much of their efforts on developing new curricula (#4) which they hoped would change instruction (#3) and improve student learning (#1). The new social studies focused some attention on inservice training of teachers (#5 and #3), but almost completely ignored the public (#6) and the culture of the school (#2)--which may help to explain the limited impact of the new social studies. New materials were produced, and some teacher educators, state supervisors, and publishers were very involved. Widespread impact on instruction (#3) and student learning (#1), however, was not achieved.

The "back-to-basics" movement, on the other hand, emanated primarily from dissatisfaction of the public (#6) with student learning (#1). The cries for a return to basic skills (reading, writing, and math) had a direct impact on the social studies profession (#5)--for example, in a reemphasis on history and government and a return to hardcover texts--and were consistent with the dominant goals and values of the school culture (#2). Many teachers, frustrated by students' inability to read at grade level, shared these goals and supported the basic-skills movement. The result was that instruction (#3) and student learning (#1) have been more affected by the back-to-basics efforts than by the new social studies efforts.

The major implication of this analysis for Project SPAN, or for anyone else hoping to improve student learning in social studies, is that all five of the other factors--profession, curriculum, instruction, culture of the school, and the public--must be considered. None--especially the culture of the school and the public--can be ignored if the goal is to be achieved.

Some Positive Results of Recent Efforts to Improve Social Studies

Acknowledging the existence of these problems does not imply that nothing good has happened in social studies in the past 20 years. The following are examples of some of the positive changes that SPAN has identified:

--Although there is still a heavy reliance on textbooks as the predominant content organizer and instructional tool in the classroom, textbooks have improved significantly over the past 25 years, as measured by various criteria. Nicholas and Suzanne Helburn wrote of the breakthrough in course design made by the new social studies project developers, listing among those accomplishments more carefully delineated learning objectives, the use of powerful conceptual and analytical structures, and careful attention to the construction and sequencing of learning activities (Helburn and Helburn 1978, pp. 23-25). In a study of U.S. and world history textbooks, Fetsko found some evidence of such innovations in current texts. More so than the texts of the 1950s, recent texts include the ideas, structures, and methodologies of the social sciences and history, attitudes and value issues, inquiry teaching strategies, clearly stated objectives, and cross-cultural studies (Fetsko 1979, p. 52). Textbooks today portray females and various racial and ethnic groups in ways that reflect the social diversity of the American people better than past textbooks did (Patrick with Hawke 1982).

--Although the dominant K-12 curriculum organization in use today is very similar to that which was put into place 60 years ago, it has proved flexible enough over the years to accommodate social changes and concerns. The Wiley literature review lists nine pages of course titles and topics found in schools, including multicultural, environmental, consumer, law-related, and career topics (Wiley 1977, Appendix A-4, pp. 24-32). While the use of separate courses for these topics is not widespread, the evidence suggests that within the traditional K-12 pattern, schools have attempted over the past 25 years to broaden the base of social studies beyond history, government, and geography. Many educators feel positive about this responsiveness of the curriculum to social changes and concerns.

--Although lecture and recitation are the most-often-used instructional strategies among social studies teachers, other methods of teaching are used by most teachers some of the time and by a few teachers most of the time. Shaver, Davis, and Helburn write, "The case studies reveal much unimaginative teaching. But there are also examples of brilliant, inspirational teaching" (1979b, p. 153). Textbook-based instruction has probably become more varied and flexible than in the past; today's textbooks suggest a wider range of activities than did those of earlier vintage (Fancett and Hawke 1982; Patrick with Hawke 1982).

--Although there has always been disagreement in the field of social studies as to its central purpose, many persons are now involved in the search for purpose. By virtue of accountability directives that require school districts to specify their learning expectations and how they plan to measure results, teachers and administrators are now involved in defining goals and objectives for social studies; in earlier times the task was assumed to belong to academicians and others outside the school. Admittedly, the task often leaves educators frustrated and complaining, but it is forcing more members of the profession to specify what social studies intends to do and how the success of these efforts can be measured.

Potential for Future Progress in Social Studies Education

Looking at both the current problems of and the recent improvements in social studies education leads us to speculate about the potential for future progress in the field. Have recent improvements been significant enough to lend hope that other improvements are also possible, even probable? Or are the problems of such magnitude that they preclude any substantial "fixing"? SPAN consultants and staff, like many other observers of the educational landscape, believe there is great potential for the improvement of education in general and of social studies in particular.

Our belief in the potential for improvement of education rests on many observations. First, despite the shortcomings of many schools and programs, many others are demonstrably better. Throughout the nation are compelling examples of outstanding teachers teaching in creative and effective ways. Some model curriculum programs have been designed to keep social studies vital and effective; these programs have been implemented in ways that please teachers, students, and parents. Scattered across the country are schools that have found practical ways to decrease management and control functions so that students can experience more-flexible in-class and out-of-class learning. If these teachers and schools are accomplishing these goals, there is good reason to believe other schools can make comparable improvements.

In students themselves we also find cause for believing improvement is possible. Although student achievement in social studies is not uniformly as great as we would like, a significant number of students today are excelling beyond the achievements of their predecessors. Similarly, even though student valuation of and interest in social studies are not as great as we would like, some students do like social studies and find it of worth. Students also show great zest for learning and participating in other aspects of their lives--sports, music, friends. Thus, we are not struggling with a "defective" input--we simply need to utilize the students' natural enthusiasms in their social studies learning.

We also take hope from the fact that public education still retains considerable public support. Since 1950, per-pupil expenditure, *in real terms* (adjusted for inflation), has *tripled* (*Historical Statistics* 1975, pp. 210, 368, 373; *Statistical Abstract* 1980, pp. 140, 141, 487). While public officials are more carefully scrutinizing public expenditures for education, and schools are being held increasingly accountable, public support is still there and will probably continue for the foreseeable future.

Finally, despite what initially appears to be great resistance to change, education as an institution is capable of change. For example, 100 years ago less than 5 percent of the high school age group could be found in school, with all the rest already out of the system and at work; now nearly all--90 percent--receive a high school diploma and are found in and around the school through age 17 or 18 (Coleman et al. 1974, p. 80). This has required many accommodations in the operation of public schools. Students who formerly would have dropped out of school upon encountering academic or behavioral problems now stay in school; for the most part, schools have been successful (though not always eager) in finding effective programs to deal with such students. More recently and more swiftly, with the passage of one federal law (PL 94-142), millions of handicapped students who once would have been placed in special schools or no schools are now being provided educational opportunities in regular classrooms. The fact that education has been able to move from an institution for the elite to an institution for the masses helps allay fears that no change is possible.

Progress in education seems not to come in the rapid, dramatic manner that we see in science and technology. Yet the potential is as real. By learning from the experiences of past reform efforts and squarely facing our current problems, we can utilize the unrealized potential of students, teachers, schools, and the institution of education itself to bring about not just change, but indeed progress.

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3. A MODEL FOR SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM PLANNING

By James E. Davis

The Foundation

When this volume was first published in 1977, we took a number of strong positions concerning the curriculum planning process for social studies. We believe it is important to reaffirm these positions here:

1. As social studies professionals, we are accountable for what we do. We must assume leadership in planning a viable program for social studies students and teachers. If we do not, less-qualified people will.

2. Using existing resources in the field (e.g., National Council for the Social Studies guidelines, SSEC's Curriculum Materials Analysis System, the National Assessment for Educational Progress) will enhance and legitimize the curriculum planning process. Creating new resources is not a good use of time. Developers of curriculum-related resources welcome their use and modification.

3. Social studies curriculum planning should take place in a climate of support from school administrators, state education agency personnel, and the community at large.

4. Social studies professionals should be primarily responsible for social studies program planning.

5. Pressure from community groups, accountability mandates, and our own professional commitment should provide the opportunity to consider what our social studies programs are all about--a task we sometimes put off because of other demands on our time and energy.

In short, social studies professionals must take the leadership in planning and implementing the social studies program. A truly sound social studies program (1) is planned with the participation of all interested parties, (2) clearly explains anticipated outcomes to the public, and (3) is subject to evaluation and continuing revision.

The Model Explained

Social studies curriculum planning committees typically go about their work in one of two ways. Some committees work long and hard on the development of objectives, create long lists of goals, and try to specify objectives for each grade level. Often, these committees feel they are not getting anywhere; they become frustrated and tired. Other committees develop courses and then go through some process of selecting curriculum materials. These committees often are under severe time constraints and end up not feeling very good about their accomplishments.

An alternative to these frustrating experiences is use of the model presented in Figure 2. This model, the result of work with numerous social studies curriculum committees nationwide, allows for thoughtful, practical, and results-oriented curriculum planning. The paragraphs below present a brief overview of the model's 12 steps, which are fully explained in sections 4-15.

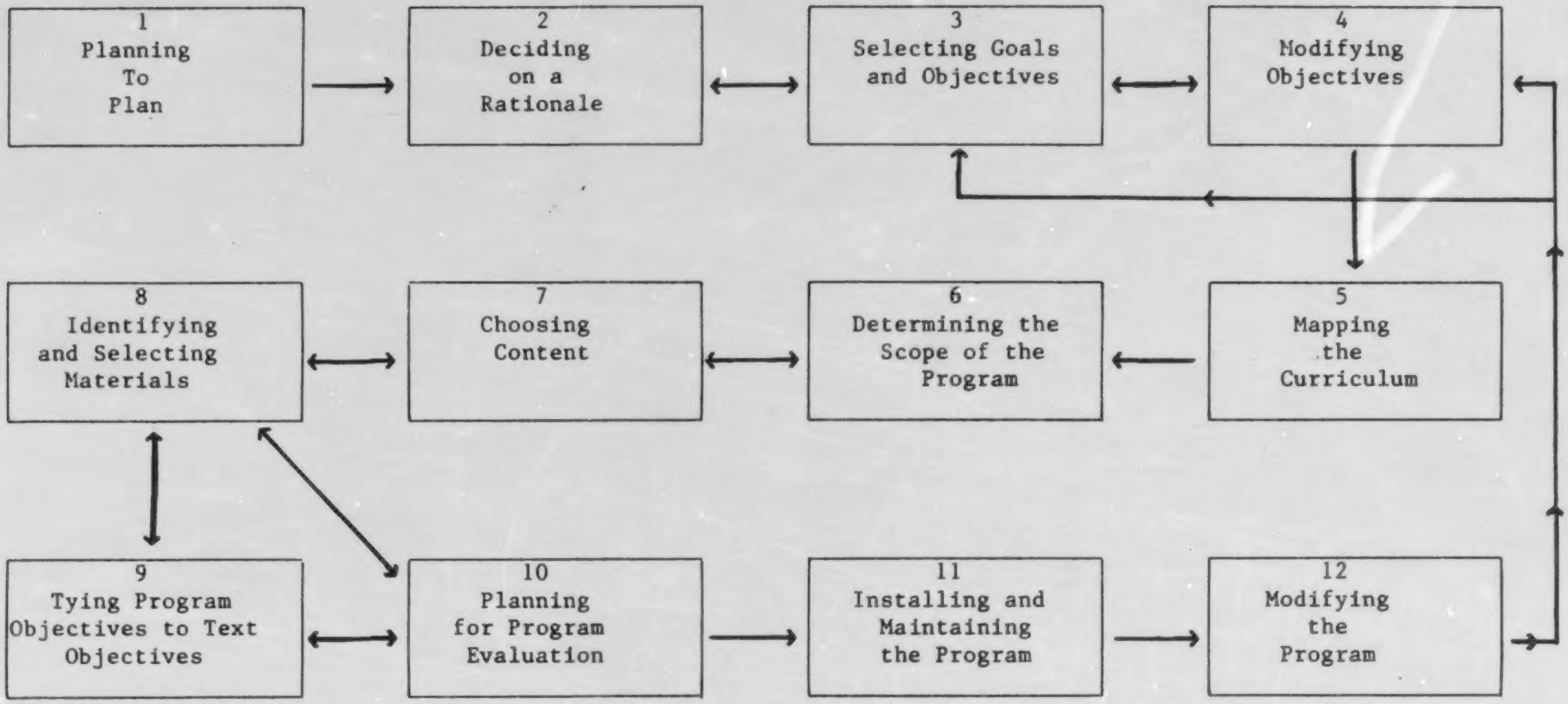
The first step, Planning to Plan, involves the committee in making some preliminary decisions about its task and the product to be developed. Also, this step provides the opportunity for the planning committee to make an early, general assessment of the present program.

Step 2, Deciding on a Rationale, helps planners make some decisions about why they are doing what they are doing. Committee members consider the place of social studies in the general education curriculum and reach decisions about the overall focus of the social studies program. Steps 3 and 4 involve the planning group in selecting and modifying a prepared set of program goals and student objectives.

Step 5, Mapping the Curriculum, enables the committee to discover what is already being taught in social studies in a school district. This step is often very revealing, in that no one committee member is likely to know what is being done at all grade levels. Once the curriculum is mapped, the committee thinks about all the possibilities for content that might be included in the social studies program in step 6, Determining the Scope of the Program. Steps 5 and 6 can be reversed if the leader feels step 5 will confine the group's thinking about the possible scope of the program. If committee members think creatively in step 6, they will discover that many difficult decisions need to be made when step 7, Choosing Content, is undertaken. Social studies curriculum planners must recognize that everything that everyone wants to teach--or thinks should be taught--cannot be taught. Content selection is a difficult, but necessary, step in the planning process.

Figure 2

A MODEL FOR SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM PLANNING


1 Planning To Plan
2 Deciding on a Rationale
3 Selecting Goals and Objectives
4 Modifying Objectives
5 Mapping the Curriculum
6 Determining the Scope of the Program
7 Choosing Content
8 Identifying and Selecting Materials
9 Tying Program Objectives to Text Objectives
10 Planning for Program Evaluation
11 Installing and Maintaining the Program
12 Modifying the Program

Once the rationale, objectives, and content are decided upon, the process of Identifying and Selecting Materials (step 8) can take place. Curriculum materials analysis is a demanding task. Its importance is underscored by the fact that the materials selected may be used for up to seven years. It is also important to recognize that local special-interest groups may have concerns about the content of social studies materials. If thoughtful, written analysis and selection procedures are not employed, these interest groups may have undue influence on selection of materials.

The next step in the planning process, Tying Text Objectives to Program Goals and Student Outcomes (step 9), will allow classroom teachers to relate the objectives stated in the materials they will be using to the overall objectives of the social studies program. This step will also help program planners make some preliminary decisions on how the program might be evaluated. In completing step 10, Planning for Program Evaluation, the committee must recognize that all aspects of a program cannot be evaluated simultaneously. Rather, a committee needs to establish some priorities for program evaluation.

Step 11, Installing and Maintaining the Program, is critical in overcoming some of the difficulties of getting a new program used in a school district. Change in education does not come about easily; nor does it happen by accident. Development of a curriculum guide and purchase of new materials do not guarantee that they will be used. A carefully planned implementation program is necessary to assure success of a new curriculum plan.

When these steps have been completed, the committee's work may appear to be done. We strongly recommend, however, that the planning committee be kept intact, thus permitting the school district to obtain and use feedback on the new program plan. Systematic collection of information on a new program's successes and failures will enable a committee (if it is in existence) to make modifications and program improvements.

Using the Model

The model presented is dynamic, having many interactive stages. In deciding how to use the model in the planning process, the leader who will be facilitating the process must decide on the sequence of steps used. The model can be entered at almost any stage, but all steps should be completed by the end of the planning period. For example, thinking through a program rationale is important, but a final rationale statement need not be developed at the outset of the planning process.

An important point must be stressed, however. Curriculum materials should not be selected until substantial thought has gone into identification and selection of objectives and a general framework has been chosen. If selected prior to these steps, curriculum materials tend to dictate the nature of the entire program.

Clearly, planning for program evaluation needs to be considered throughout the planning process. Evaluation plans do not need to be finalized, however, until after much of the program planning has been completed.

4. PLANNING TO PLAN

By James E. Davis and Frances Haley

Background Notes

Social studies professionals are often called upon to describe and explain local social studies programs. On some occasions we are even asked to justify the existence of any kind of social studies program. On other occasions we are asked to explain the level of student learning of social studies content. Regardless of the question, we must be prepared to respond with useful and pertinent information that can be shared with administrators, boards of education, and the general public. Often the kind of support we receive depends on how well we accomplish this task.

Three activities are included here to help start the planning process. The first, "Assessment of SPAN-Identified Problems in My School/District," alerts planning group members to dimensions of the six SPAN problems in their own situation. The second, "Memo to Social Studies Staff From Superintendent of Schools," is designed to encourage curriculum planners to look hard at the social studies program now in place and assess its strengths and weaknesses. Making such an assessment is helpful both in explaining a program to others and in providing planners with a valid basis for changing or modifying the program. This activity is particularly useful as a discussion device.

The third activity, "Clarifying the Task," is vital in getting the planning process off to a good start. Individuals come to curriculum planning meetings with differing agendas. The purpose of the work and the intended product may be unclear. But unless individuals know why they are on the planning group and until they know what kind of product they will be producing, there is little reason to proceed with the planning process. Thus, "Clarifying the Task" is critical to the planning group's future progress and productivity.

Conducting the Activity: Assessment of SPAN-Identified Problems in My School/District

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of the paper provided in section 2 of this guide ("Six Problems for Social Studies in the 1980s") and Handout 1; newsprint, marking pens, and masking tape.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) list six major problems for social studies education, (2) explain the relationship between the six problems, and (3) determine the degree to which they believe the SPAN-stated problems are district/school problems.

Suggested Steps:

1. Distribute copies of the paper and provide time for reading.
2. Distribute Handout 1, telling participants to fill out the form from their individual perspectives. Emphasize that participants should list any evidence they can think of for each problem area.
3. Tally the results either on a chalkboard or on newsprint.
4. Discuss the results, probing for clarification and substantiation on the evidence listed. Reaching a consensus is not necessary, but work toward agreement in as many of the problem areas as possible.
5. List on chalkboard or newsprint the specific problems (other than curriculum) that will need to be attended to as the social studies planning process continues. Save the list for future reference.

Conducting the Activity: Memo to Social Studies Staff From Superintendent of Schools

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handout 2; newsprint, marking pens, and masking tape.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) identify divergent opinions about the social studies by citing similarities and differences in viewpoints expressed, (2) state the need for some kind of logically developed social studies program, (3) list ways of demonstrating the value of a program in terms understandable to the public, and (4) explain the strengths and weaknesses of the current program and the available information about outcomes.

Suggested Steps:

1. Introduce the activity by explaining that it was designed to help participants think about assessing the school district's current social studies program.

2. Divide participants into groups of four to six. If possible, structure the groups so that each includes a participant from every level (primary, intermediate, junior high, senior high).

3. Distribute Handout 2, "Memo From tne Superintendent," and allow time for reading. Ask each group to work through the questions in the superintendent's memo in order. One member of each group should record the responses of group members on newsprint. When each group has finished answering the questions, its members should look over their responses and put asterisks beside the ones they think are best. When all groups have finished, post the responses and ask the participants to study all the groups' lists, especially noting similarities and differences.

4. Debrief the activity by asking the questions that follow. Don't attempt to reject or evaluate answers, just accept and record them.

    a. What similarities and differences did you note as you read the groups' responses?

    b. What evidence of the success or failure of a program can we demonstrate to the school board or the community?

    c. What are some strengths and weaknesses of our current program?

    d. How might our current program be improved?

5. Save the results of the debriefing for future reference. Many of the ideas should be useful for future curriculum planning work.

Conducting the Activity: Clarifying the Planning Task

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handout 3.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) describe their own view of the planning task and (2) agree as a group on the purpose of the committee's work and the nature of the product that will result from the planning process.

Suggested Steps:

1. Tell participants to complete Handout 3 individually and as thoroughly as possible. They should not put their names on the handout.
2. Collect the handouts and redistribute them randomly so each person has another person's handout.
3. Ask individuals to read the responses aloud on a question-by-question basis; that is, read all the responses to question 1, then 2, etc. Take notes, especially on areas of disagreement.
4. When all the responses have been shared, clarify the task and conduct a discussion to determine if all are in agreement.
5. Clarify what the nature of the product will be. Be as specific as possible. Will the product be a general guide or a series of specific grade-level lesson activities? Will tests be included or referred to? Will the product be looseleaf or bound? Will it be typed or typeset? This step may take considerable time.

ASSESSMENT OF SPAN-IDENTIFIED PROBLEMS IN MY SCHOOL/DISTRICT

Instructions: The six SPAN-identified problems are listed below. Rate each problem--except student learning, which is an enduring problem area--in terms of the degree to which you think it is a problem in your school/district. In the space provided, jot down any supporting evidence you know about.

1. Student Learning: Many students leave school without the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are important and desirable outcomes of social studies programs. In addition, many students do not like or value social studies as much as other subjects.

(No assessment asked for)

2. The Culture of the School: The culture and organization of schools, especially at the secondary level, focus much of the energy of teachers and administrators on matters of management and control rather than on the teaching and learning of social studies--particularly the teaching and learning of higher-level thinking skills, participation skills, and democratic values.

	1	2	3	4	5
unaware this is a problem	slight problem		moderate problem		serious problem

Local supporting evidence: ____________
____
____
____
____

3. Teaching Practices: Instruction in social studies is generally characterized by lack of variety in teaching methods and evaluation practices, by limited kinds of learning experiences, and by inattention to the implications of educational research.

	1	2	3	4	5
unaware this is a problem	slight problem		moderate problem		serious problem

Local supporting evidence: ____________
____
____
____
____

4. Curriculum: The social studies curriculum--courses, materials, and content--is focused primarily on specific facts and broad conclusions from history and other social science disciplines rather than on critical thinking skills, social science concepts, values and attitudes, and social participation. The curriculum, moreover, is not based on student developmental needs and does not emphasize important societal issues and effective participation in the social world.

1 2 3 4 5

unaware this is a problem — slight problem — moderate problem — serious problem

Local supporting evidence: __________

____

____

____

____

5. Profession: Parts of the social studies profession, in varying degrees, are characterized by considerable disagreement on the most important goals and objectives of social studies and by a decided lack of direction, satisfaction, opportunities for professional growth, and constructive interaction among the various participants.

1 2 3 4 5

unaware this is a problem — slight problem — moderate problem — serious problem

Local supporting evidence: __________

____

____

____

____

6. Public Support: There is insufficient public support for and understanding of social studies programs that are balanced, judicious in responding to special interests, supportive of democratic values, scientifically and educationally sound, and relevant to the present and future lives of students.

1 2 3 4 5

unaware this is a problem — slight problem — moderate problem — serious problem

Local supporting evidence: __________

____

____

____

____

MEMO FROM THE SUPERINTENDENT

TO: Social studies staff
FROM: Superintendent of Schools
DATE: January 1983
SUBJECT: Departmental reports to the board and community

The school board at its last meeting formally established a policy requiring an annual report to the public from each department. These reports will focus on the K-12 program goals, instructional plans for meeting the goals, and preparation for meeting minimum competency requirements.

The social studies department was chosen by the board to make the first report at the board meeting next month. Please prepare a written response to these specific questions:

1. Given the increasingly crowded curriculum, what justification can you give for the inclusion of social studies in the curriculum?

2. What are students expected to learn as a result of social studies instruction?

3. What evidence do you presently have that indicates what students are learning as a result of social studies instruction?

4. What plans have you made for preparing students to pass minimum competency tests?

5. What information can you make available to the school board and the administration in support of continuing or expanding the social studies program?

CLARIFYING THE PLANNING TASK

1. What is your committee's task?

2. Why is your committee engaged in this task?

3. What do you expect the final product of the committee's work to look like?

4. What do you expect will be done with the product you develop?

5. DECIDING ON A RATIONALE

By James E. Davis and Sharryl Davis Hawke*

Background Notes

A rationale explains why people are doing what they are doing. The rationale for a school curriculum includes certain assumptions about students. A social studies rationale should include a philosophical statement about the nature of society--past, present, and future--as well as a statement about the nature of the social studies, including the role of the social science disciplines in the curriculum.

Writing a rationale need not be difficult. The purpose is not to write an extensive social studies philosophy, but to find the areas in which the social studies staff agrees and clearly state them for the benefit of all concerned. Teachers often informally discuss why they are doing what they are doing. Some teachers have had the opportunity to develop formal statements about their social studies courses or programs or to participate in preparing the district's general statement of philosophy of education. Having your district's statement available for this activity is desirable.

This activity provides alternate processes for moving a planning group toward the development of a rationale statement. The first process involves ranking a series of eight teacher statements about important functions for the social studies. The second process asks for a Likert-type assessment of the same eight statements. Choose the procedure that seems best for your situation. The usefulness of this activity can be enhanced by asking a group of parents to do the same kind of thing the planning group is doing. Parent participation at this stage of the planning process can provide useful information to the planning group as well as an important basis for future involvement.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 4, 5 or 6, and 7.

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*Craig Kissock conceived the version of this activity published in the first edition of this book.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) articulate their individual views about the social studies, (2) identify areas of agreement and disagreement about a social studies rationale, and (3) begin developing a social studies rationale statement.

Suggested Steps:

1. If this activity is scheduled early in the planning process, you might begin by explaining that it is intended merely to initiate the work of rationale development. Further work on the rationale can take place after objectives and content have been selected. Since not all the steps described in this activity can be completed in one half-day workshop, you might want to schedule a follow-up session or appoint a small working group to perform the final tasks.

Here is a suggested introductory statement: "A social studies rationale reflects the 'why' of the social studies program. A rationale includes statements about the nature of our students, our views of society, and our views of the social studies. Our rationale forms the philosophical underpinning of our social studies program. It serves as a guide to the development of broad program goals, student learning outcomes, and content. It is also a guide to the way we work with students in the classroom. Our rationale can be used to help explain to the public the nature of our program. This activity is designed to help us sort out our individual positions; it will also help us know where we, as a group, agree and disagree. After participating in this activity, we should be able to develop a rationale statement that all of us can live with and support."

2. Distribute Handout 4, "Teacher Statements About Important Functions for the Social Studies." To use the ranking process, follow these steps:

a. Ask the participants to read the eight statements carefully. After they have read all the statements, they should rank them from 1 to 8, with 1 indicating the statement that comes closest to what they believe and 8 indicating the statement that is farthest from their beliefs.

b. After all the participants have finished, small groups of not more than five people should be formed. Give each group a copy of

Handout 5, "Small-Group Ranking of Teacher Statements," and ask group members to report their individual rankings. A total score should then be determined for each statement.

c. After totals for all the statements have been determined, each small group can begin to see where its members agree and disagree. The examples in Figure 3 may be helpful. In this summary, Statements A and E, the "citizenship" and "social issues" statements, respectively, appear to have both the lowest totals and least disagreement. Statement D, the "self-identity" rationale, elicited some disagreement in the group, as one person ranked the statement first and another seventh. There is even more disagreement about statement G, "personal survival." Two people ranked the statement very high and two people ranked it low.

To use the Likert assessment process, follow these steps:

a. Ask the participants to read the eight statements carefully, marking their views of each in the blank to the left of the statement. Participants should use the following response categories: SA = strongly agree with the statement; A = agree with the statement; D = disagree with the statement; SD = strongly disagree with the statement. As participants fill in the blanks, they must write short phrases or statements explaining why they rated the statements as they did. This will enable others to understand reasons for particular philosophical beliefs and will aid in further developing the rationale statement.

b. After all participants have finished, small groups of between five and ten people should be formed. Give each group a copy of Handout 6, "Summary Assessment of Teacher Statements." Each group should tally their results. (Note: Ultimately, you--as leader--will want to tally the results for the entire planning group.)

c. After totals for all the statements have been determined, each small group can begin to see where its members agree and disagree. Figure 4 illustrates this process. Statements A and E again seem to have the most support. Statement F generates the most disagreement, while statements G and H have the least support.

3. After the group rankings/tallies have been analyzed and areas of agreement and disagreement have been identified and discussed, each small group should compose a series of statements on which they agree.

Figure 3

SAMPLE SMALL-GROUP RATING OF TEACHER STATEMENTS

(5 Participants)

Statement	Individual Ranking					Total
A	1	2	1	2	1	7
B	4	4	7	5	5	25
C	8	5	6	6	6	31
D	7	6	5	1	4	23
E	3	3	3	4	3	16
F	6	7	8	8	8	37
G	2	1	4	7	7	21
H	5	8	2	3	2	20

Figure 4

SAMPLE SUMMARY ASSESSMENT OF TEACHER STATEMENTS

(10 Participants)

Statement	SA	A	D	SD
A	5	5	0	0
B	2	3	5	0
C	1	4	3	2
D	0	3	5	2
E	6	2	2	0
F	4	1	1	4
G	1	0	6	3
H	1	1	5	3

Each group should write as many statements as it can under each of three categories: (1) assumptions about students, (2) views about the nature of society, and (3) views about the social studies. The statements should be saved for further development.

4. Use the following procedure to complete the rationale:

a. Appoint a small working group of two or three people to draft a rationale based on input from the small groups.

b. The draft rationale should be critiqued by all the participants in the entire planning group. Two or three critiques may be necessary before all the planners are satisfied with the rationale.

c. After the planning group has agreed on the rationale, give it to other individuals and groups for further written comments. These reviewers might include central office administrators, building principals, other teachers, board members, and laypersons. Be sure to set a deadline for receipt of the critiques and to explain how and why the rationale was developed and what will be done with the critiques.

d. Once the critiques are received, a new draft of the rationale should be prepared and submitted to the appropriate approval groups (e.g., administrative cabinet, school board). More than one round of revisions and critiques may be necessary before a draft that is acceptable to everyone concerned results.

A sample of a school district rationale statement that resulted from this process is provided on Handout 7.

Handout 4 1 of 2

TEACHER STATEMENTS ABOUT IMPORTANT FUNCTIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

_____A. "Well, as I see it, the main task of education in a democratic society is to produce citizens who are neither apathetic nor cynical. That is, who feel that problems can be solved, that wrongs can be righted and most of all that they personally can participate and influence the direction of the society. The implication for the social studies is that somewhere in the curriculum we have to show them how to participate, convince them that their efforts can really count."

_____B. "Our job in social studies, as in every other subject area, is to get students fired up about learning, to want to know about that big world out there. We need to get them interested, intrigued, even worried--to get their brains working. This is easier in social studies than in other subjects because we deal with real human situations rather than with abstractions."

_____C. "In a democracy, the individual's relationship to the state is of great concern. In a modern industrial democracy, where large corporations have almost as much power to influence lives and public policy as government, the individual's relationship to the economic power structure is of equal concern. We must teach students what rights they as individuals have and alert them to how easily and quietly those rights can be taken away. We need to instruct students in the lawful use of power--how to keep any group or interest from accumulating too much of it; how to know who has it; how to organize to obtain a fair share of it."

_____D. "Students are still trying to figure out who they are--and who they want to be...and who their peers want them to be. So identity is the key preoccupation and the source of a lot of internal conflict. Probably the most important job for the social studies is to go a little easier on the academic learning and put our efforts into helping kids over the rough ground of growing up. After all, in the social studies we study human beings and what makes them tick. A lot of our subject matter can help kids mature if we teach them how to apply the knowledge and skills of the social sciences."

_____E. "Social studies ought to be the study of contemporary social issues. We fail in our most important mission if we don't motivate students to be concerned about issues such as discrimination, inflation, or inequality and if we don't teach them how to express their concerns. Of course, to do this we must teach students the history of these issues and the alternatives available for resolving the problems. Our approach can't be abstract and we can't put the issues off until the end of every school year. Our program must attack social issues head-on and continuously."

_____F. "If you're teaching college-bound students, the primary task of the social studies is crystal clear: teach the information and skills that will help your students get into college and do well after getting there. Your students expect it, their parents expect it, and the administration expects it. Courses for the college-bound need to be well-structured, thorough, and tough. Students need discipline and skill to succeed in today's college courses, and core social studies courses should foster such characteristics. It is social studies' contribution to students' academic upward mobility."

_____G. "Survival is what we need to teach. Not just how to read a road map but also how to cope with bureaucrats and employers and police and landlords. Or how to cope with shoddy products, crowded living, aggressiveness. And not least--how to cope with loneliness. Surely the thing for which the social studies should be most accountable is preparing the new generation to find satisfying and effective personal solutions to such problems."

_____H. "The real problem is change. Everything we teach in social studies should be focused on the central idea of change. Part of what we should be teaching is how specific changes come about, how and why they were resisted, what the long-range consequences were, and how people adapted. The other part of what we should be doing is alerting students to developments that are still over the horizon but which will eventually affect their lives. Students need to begin thinking about the future in a disciplined way if they are to successfully meet the challenge of the future."

Adapted from the Anthropology Case Materials Project, Indiana University.

Handout 5 1 of 1

SMALL-GROUP RANKING OF TEACHER STATEMENTS

Instructions: In the blanks to the right of each letter, write the rankings given that statement by individual group members. Add these rankings for each statement to get the total. Then identify areas of agreement and disagreement among group members.

Statement	Individual Ranking					Total
A	______	______	______	______	______	______
B	______	______	______	______	______	______
C	______	______	______	______	______	______
D	______	______	______	______	______	______
E	______	______	______	______	______	______
F	______	______	______	______	______	______
G	______	______	______	______	______	______
H	______	______	______	______	______	______

Areas of Agreement:

Areas of Disagreement:

Handout 6 1 of 1

SUMMARY ASSESSMENT OF TEACHER STATEMENTS

Instructions: In the chart below, tally the number of group members who chose each response category for each statement. Then identify areas of agreement and disagreement among group members.

Statement	Strongly Agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Disagree (D)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
A				
B				
C				
D				
E				
F				
G				
H				

Areas of Agreement:

Areas of Disagreement:

SAMPLE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM RATIONALE

Social studies is the study of people and the social world--the human experience. The "stuff" of social studies is knowledge about humans and the social world, skills which help students understand more about people and society, and attitudes which help persons participate more effectively in their social interactions. Social studies students study the past, but they also examine the present and consider the future.

Social studies is an expansive, sometimes elusive subject. It cannot be taught all at once; nor is it ever really "mastered." However, the teaching of social studies is structured and systematic. Simple, concrete ideas and skills are introduced in primary grades and sequentially developed into abstract, complex ideas and skills through the senior high years. Success in social studies is measured by students' growing more sophisticated in their understanding of ideas, more precise in their application of skills, and more aware of and sensitive to attitudes and beliefs in themselves and others. Thus, social studies is a K-12 experience--a 13-year endeavor--not a series of one-year classes.

Underlying the social studies curriculum at every grade level is the belief that students must be thoughtfully and systematically prepared to be effective, concerned, "thinking" citizens. Citizenship preparation is not solely the responsibility of social studies teachers and curriculum, but social studies has an especially important role to play in citizenship development. In particular, social studies is primarily responsible for teaching students their cultural and national heritage. This does not imply the teaching of unquestioning loyalty. Instead, it means engaging students in a thorough, objective look at their cultural roots and those of persons in other cultures. In addition to teaching about cultural heritage, social studies has a unique responsibility to develop in students an appreciation for their heritage and a commitment from them to contribute to the future strength of their community, state, country, and world.

A second thrust of the social studies program is a belief in the personal development of each student. Students are human beings with changing abilities, needs, concerns, joys, and fears, and their personal growth is a primary concern of social studies teachers and the district's social studies curriculum. As with citizenship preparation, the personal development of students is a responsibility shared with other teachers and curriculum areas, but again social studies has a particular role to play. It is in social studies that human development and human interaction are topics for direct, rather than incidental, teaching. It is also in social studies that students learn the skills and methods of social scientists--economists, political scientists, geographers, psychologists, sociologists, historians. These skills enable students to better analyze and participate in their world, both currently as students and later as adults. Helping students understand themselves and others, and to develop positive attitudes toward themselves and others, is at the core of each grade level's instruction.

Finally, the social studies program is based on a conviction that students must be actively and purposely prepared for the future--an uncertain future. Social studies knowledge, skills, and attitudes are taught not as "school stuff" but as essential learning for life. Students are armed with the coping abilities and skills that enable them to confidently welcome an ever-changing and unpredictable tomorrow.

In short, social studies in this district springs from a belief that social studies can and should be about the business of developing effective citizens who have insight into themselves and others and who have the coping skills necessary to live in the future as well as the present. To this end, the social studies curriculum has been designed.

6. SELECTING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

By Roger Wangen

Background Notes

One of the most difficult tasks for many curriculum planning committees is deciding what to do about objectives. The least desirable way to approach this problem is to establish "creative writing" groups to develop objectives from scratch. The resulting product is usually not worth the time and effort expended.

A more useful way of deciding what we want students to learn is to examine objectives from a variety of sources. The curriculum planning group then identifies, clarifies, and reaches consensus about which learning objectives best meet the district needs as identified by the group. A number of sources of objectives are listed in Appendix A.

Regardless of the source of objectives, the following criteria should apply when deciding on program goals and student outcomes:

1. Program goals are stated in such a way that many student outcomes can be developed from the goals.
2. Student outcomes are directly related to a broad program goal.
3. Each outcome focuses on student learning.
4. A measurable behavior has been identified.
5. The outcome is important to social studies education.
6. The outcomes are consistent with the district rationale for social studies.
7. The outcomes will be useful to teachers in developing or selecting specific instructional objectives.
8. The outcomes will allow flexibility in instructional procedures and materials.

The first stage of planning related to selecting program goals and student outcomes involves the planning group in becoming acquainted with and selecting program goals and objectives from the National Assessment of Educational Progress/Minnesota Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP/MAEP) statement of goals and objectives. The NAEP/MAEP statement is used for the following reasons: (1) it has been carefully developed by professionals and agreed upon by a broad representation of the education community; (2) it includes timeless and specific, culture-free statements of student outcomes; (3) the student outcome statements lend themselves to measurement. (Note: A revised set of objectives, with citizenship objectives added, is now available from NAEP.)

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 8 and 9.

Activity Objective: Participants should be able to identify and agree upon program goals and student outcomes that can be used as the basis for the K-12 social studies program.

Suggested Steps:

1. Introduce the activity by explaining that this is the first stage of a two-stage activity on identifying social studies program goals and student outcomes. The second stage (see section 7) will involve the planning group in deciding what to do with respect to specific instructional objectives.

2. Review the criteria for selecting program goals and student outcomes presented in the Background Notes section. Explain that working with a comprehensive set of already-developed objectives is more useful than going through a creative writing process, even if the list of goals and outcomes is rather lengthy.

3. Have participants individually examine Handouts 8 and 9. Handout 8 explains how goals and student outcomes are related, while Handout 9 lists student outcomes. When you are satisfied that participants understand the relationship between goals and student outcomes, participants should go through the student outcomes, deciding whether they agree that each listed outcome is essential for a K-12 social studies program. (No assessment of program goals is called for.)

4. Groups of about five persons should be formed when all the participants have completed their individual assessments. The groups should review all the objectives to determine if any serious disagreements exist. (Note: There are not likely to be many serious

disagreements. If there are, another list of objectives should be considered.) Reasons for disagreements and what might be done about them should be discussed. Student outcomes that generate disagreement can be thrown out or reworded to suit the group.

5. Spokespersons for each small group should be brought together to merge the results of the group discussions. This meeting should result in one list of program goals and student outcomes, which becomes the preliminary district statement of goals and student outcomes for K-12 social studies.

PROGRAM GOALS AND STUDENT OUTCOMES

One convenient way to think about objectives is to think in terms of three levels of specificity. The most general level might be called *program goals*; the next level, *student outcomes* or *specific objectives*; and the third level, *instructional objectives*. The first two levels are dealt with here.

Program Goals

Program goals are very general statements that relate closely to the program rationale and set the direction for other objectives. The three program goals from the NAEP/MAEP statement illustrate these kinds of program goals.

Cognitive Goal--(Handout 9, p. 1)

> Develops an understanding of the relationships between human beings and their social and physical environments in the past and present; develops an understanding of the origins, interrelationships, and effects of beliefs, values, and behavior patterns; and applies this knowledge to new situations and data.

Process Goal--(Handout 9, p. 8)

> Develops the competencies to acquire, organize, evaluate, and report information for purposes of solving problems and clarifying issues.

Affective Goal--(Handout 9, p. 11)

> Examines own beliefs and values--recognizes the relationship between own value structure and own behavior and develops human relations skills and attitudes that enable one to act in the interest of self and others; is developing a positive self-concept.

Student Outcomes

Student outcomes, or specific objectives, define more clearly the expectations for students. If stated properly, these kinds of objectives lend themselves to measurement and thus form a sound base for an accountable program. Here are examples of NAEP/MAEP student outcomes which relate to the program goals stated above.

Cognitive Student Outcomes--(Handout 9, p. 2)

> Explains and evaluates some ways human resources have been allocated, utilized, and conserved in the community, the nation, and other societies.

Process Student Outcome--(Handout 9, p. 9)
Develops questions appropriate for obtaining information from sources.

Affective Student Outcome--(Handout 9, p. 11)
Identifies a range of individual (personal) characteristics.

Often, a number of student outcomes relate to specific content. Thus, NAEP/MAEP has clustered student outcomes into categories as shown below:

General Category of Student Outcomes--(Handout 9, p. 9)
D. Demonstrates ability to use reliable sources of information.

Student Outcomes--(Handout 9, p. 9)

1. Uses more than one source to obtain information.

2. Develops questions appropriate for obtaining information from sources.

3. Records observations and information obtained from sources.

SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM GOALS AND STUDENT OUTCOMES

Section I: Cognitive Objectives

I. Develops an understanding of the relationships between human beings and their social and physical environments in the past and present; develops an understanding of the origins, interrelationships, and effects of beliefs, values, and behavior patterns; and applies this knowledge to new situations and data.

Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree

---

A. Acquires knowledge about social organization.

1. Identifies some groups that human beings form (e.g., family, peer, community, national, international) and indicates some reasons why and how these groups form. SA A NO D SD

2. Identifies some preferences among people that lead to group identification (e.g., common interest, common heritage). SA A NO D SD

3. Describes some of the functions of groups such as family, peer, community, national, and international groups in various cultures and indicates how and why these functions change; gives explanations of the consequences of these changing functions. SA A NO D SD

4. Describes some of the functions of basic institutions (e.g., educational, legal, religious, financial, health care, business) in various cultures and indicates how and why these functions change. SA A NO D SD

5. Identifies "cultural universals" such as shelter, food, communications, socialization, family organization and religion; recognizes that these "cultural universals" take different forms in various cultures and that these forms change over time. SA A NO D SD

6. Describes some of the basic patterns of human settlement (e.g., nomadic, village, city) and describes similarities and differences between these patterns. SA A NO D SD

Adapted with permission from Some Essential Learner Outcomes in Social Studies, Curriculum Bulletin No. 43 (Minneapolis: Minnesota Department of Education, Division of Instruction, 1977).

Essential for a K-12 Social
Studies Program--Strongly
Agree, Agree, No Opinion,
Disagree, Strongly Disagree

B. Acquires knowledge about the relationships between human beings and social environments; understands some [illegible] effects of these relationships; and makes value judgments about the consequences of these relationships.

1. Identifies and describes some influences groups (e.g., family, peer) and institutions have on individual behavior and attitudes (e.g., choice of clothes, food, language, recreation, attitudes toward other people and institutions, and cultural perceptions) and compares these influences with those in other cultures. SA A NO D SD

2. Identifies individuals and groups whose efforts, ideas, or inventions have significantly affected the lives of other human beings and describes their contributions. SA A NO D SD

3. Describes major changes that have occurred in the way people live or work (including one's own life) and explains what ideas and inventions helped bring about these changes. SA A NO D SD

4. Describes some ways ideas, customs, and inventions have been transmitted and spread from one people to another. SA A NO D SD

5. Describes some innovations (ideas or inventions) and explains how these innovations have affected social life. SA A NO D SD

6. Describes some factors that might promote or inhibit change, and generalizes about their effect on society. SA A NO D SD

7. Describes and evaluates some of the effects of population density and growth on the way people live. SA A NO D SD

8. Explains and evaluates some ways human resources have been allocated, utilized, and conserved in the community, the nation, and in other societies. SA A NO D SD

Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree

---

9. Gives examples of some effects on social institutions that may result from contact between cultures. SA A NO D SD

10. Explains how various ethnic groups (both within and outside a society) have contributed to the development of a particular culture. SA A NO D SD

C. Acquires knowledge about the relationships between human beings and the physical environment; explains some of the effects of these relationships; and makes value judgments about the consequences of these relationships.

1. Identifies the major features of the physical environment and knows some of the general characteristics of regions and regional patterns in the world. SA A NO D SD

2. Describes ways human beings have adapted to or modified their physical environment; explains some reasons for these changes; describes and evaluates the effects of such changes. SA A NO D SD

3. Explains and evaluates some effects of technology (e.g., inventions and methods of production) on the relationship between human beings and the physical environment. SA A NO D SD

4. Explains and evaluates ways in which natural resources have been allocated, utilized, and conserved in the community, regions, the nation and in other societies. SA A NO D SD

D. Acquires knowledge about decision-making processes.

1. Gives examples of some decisions made at home, in school, in peer groups, or at work, which affect the individual; identifies who makes these decisions and describes how these decisions have affected individual behavior. SA A NO D SD

Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree

---

2.	Identifies decisions made about the production and distribution of goods in community, state, national, and international situations; suggests some reasons for these decisions and indicates possible effects of these decisions.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
3.	Identifies some decisions made about services (e.g., protection, health care, transportation) in community, state, national, and international situations; suggests some reasons for these decisions and indicates possible effects of these decisions.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
4.	Explains the influence of geographic location, lifestyle, advertising, level of income, peer pressure, and governmental action on consumer decisions; describes and evaluates individual or group actions taken to protect the consumer.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
5.	Demonstrates knowledge of the reasons for rules and laws within a society.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
6.	Describes some of the reasons why people form governments.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
7.	Identifies the structure and function of government within the school and community.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
8.	Identifies the rights of the individual as expressed in the U.S. Constitution and explains the importance of these rights in public and private decision making.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
9.	Explains the formal and informal relationships among the branches of the federal government and analyzes the importance of these relationships in decision making.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
10.	Identifies the changing relationships in the division of power between local, state, and national governments, and analyzes some effects these relationships have on the decision-making process.	SA	A	NO	D	SD

Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree

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11. Identifies specific interests of some of the major economic, social, and political organizations in the United States and describes some influences these groups have on the decision-making process. SA A NO D SD

12. Compares, contrasts, and evaluates ways individuals or groups can support or effect changes in decisions that have been made. SA A NO D SD

E. Acquires knowledge about conflict and the impact it has on individual and group relationships, and makes value judgments about these relationships.

1. Identifies potential sources of conflict in groups (e.g., family, peer, school, community, national, and international). SA A NO D SD

2. Identifies specific situations in the community, national, and international areas where there is potential or actual conflict; explains some reasons for the conflict; predicts the consequences of the conflict. SA A NO D SD

3. Identifies ways people react to conflict in family, peer, school, community, national, and international situations, and evaluates those reactions. SA A NO D SD

4. Identifies ways conflict has been handled in family, peer, school, community, national, and international situations, and evaluates the methods used in handling such conflicts. SA A NO D SD

5. Explains how conflict may affect relationships between individuals and between groups of people. SA A NO D SD

6. Gives constructive ways of handling conflict situations. SA A NO D SD

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree
F. Expresses awareness of some of the beliefs and values expressed by people and recognizes that the times and places in which people live influence their beliefs, values, and behaviors.	
1. Identifies objects, feelings, and ideas important to people in different places and at different times, and explains why some things are valued more in some places and times than in others.	SA A NO D SD
2. Describes ways people express their feelings and preferences for objects and ideas.	SA A NO D SD
3. Infers beliefs, values, and lifestyles from information about the times and places in which people live.	SA A NO D SD
G. Demonstrates knowledge of ways beliefs and values are transmitted in various cultures.	
1. Compares and contrasts the ways beliefs and values are transmitted in one's own society with ways by which beliefs and values are transmitted in another society.	SA A NO D SD
2. Describes ways beliefs and values are transmitted between cultures.	SA A NO D SD
H. Acquires knowledge about some of the influences, beliefs, and values have on relationships between people.	
1. Gives examples of influences of beliefs and values of members of one's own family or peer group, and explains some of the possible effects of these influences.	SA A NO D SD
2. Compares and contrasts the beliefs and values of two groups of people, and suggests the effects that the similarities and differences in beliefs and values may have on the relationship between these two groups.	SA A NO D SD

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree
3. Gives examples of differences in beliefs and values that have created a division between two groups of people, identifies alternative ways of dealing with the situation, and explains the consequences of each alternative.	SA A NO D SD

Section II: Process Objectives

II. Develops the competencies to acquire, organize, evaluate, and report information for purposes of solving problems and clarifying issues.	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree				
A. Identifies the central problem in a situation; identifies the major issue in a dispute.					
1. Clarifies vague and ambiguous terminology.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
2. Distinguishes among definitional, value, and factual issues in a dispute.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
B. Applies divergent thinking in formulating hypotheses and generalizations capable of being tested.					
C. Identifies and locates sources of information and evaluates the reliability and relevance of these sources.					
1. Identifies and locates sources of information appropriate to the task (e.g., authorities or resource people, books on subject, reference works, maps, magazines, newspapers, fiction, radio, television, interviews, surveys, experiments, statistical data, case studies, systematic observations, personal experiences, artistic representations, fiction).	SA	A	NO	D	SD
2. Distinguishes between relevant and irrelevant sources.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
3. Distinguishes between reliable and unreliable sources.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
D. Demonstrates ability to use reliable sources of information.					
1. Uses more than one source to obtain information.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
2. Develops questions appropriate for obtaining information from sources.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
3. Records observations and information obtained from sources.	SA	A	NO	D	SD

		Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree				
	4. Identifies points of agreement and disagreement among the sources.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	5. Evaluates the quality of the available information.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
E.	Organizes, analyzes, interprets, and synthesizes information obtained from various sources.					
	1. Identifies central elements in information.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	2. Classifies information.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	3. Distinguishes statements of fact from statements of opinion.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	4. Distinguishes statements of inference from statements of fact.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	5. Identifies stated opinions, biases, and value judgments.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	6. Differentiates between points of view.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	7. Recognizes logical errors.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	8. Recognizes inadequacies or omissions in information.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	9. Makes inferences from data.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	10. Identifies cause and effect relationships.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	11. Recognizes interrelationships among concepts.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	12. Identifies nature of sample.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	13. Identifies stated and unstated assumptions.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	14. Summarizes information.	SA	A	NO	D	SD

		Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree				
F.	Uses summarized information to test hypotheses, draw conclusions, offer solutions to problems, clarify issues, or make predictions.					
G.	Validates outcome of investigation.					
	1. Tests solutions to problem or issue when possible.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	2. Modifies solutions in light of new factors or considerations.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	3. Analyzes trends and modifies predictions when necessary.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
H.	Appraises judgments and values that are involved in the choice of a course of action.					
	1. Identifies and weighs conflicting values which serve as contradicting criteria for judging courses of action.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	2. Develops a set of criteria for judging proposed courses of action in terms of actual and projected consequences.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	3. Applies the established criteria to actual and projected consequences of a proposed course of action.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
	4. Selects and defends a position or course of action consistent with the established criteria.	SA	A	NO	D	SD

Section III: Affective Objectives

III. Examines own beliefs and values, recognizes the relationship between own value structure and own behavior, and develops human relations skills and attitudes that enable one to act in the interest of self and others; is developing a positive self-concept.	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree
A. Expresses awareness of the characteristics that give one identity.	
1. Identifies a range of individual (personal) characteristics.	SA A NO D SD
2. Identifies the characteristics of the individuals, groups, institutions or associations, with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD
3. Identifies the similarities and differences between one's own characteristics and those of the groups with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD
B. Expresses awareness of one's goals (aspirations) and the goals of the groups with which one identifies, and correlates those goals.	
1. Identifies one's own goals.	SA A NO D SD
2. Identifies the goals of the individuals, groups, institutions or associations, with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD
C. Expresses awareness of the relative strengths of oneself and the groups with which one identifies; recognizes the social barriers to full development that may exist; suggests ways of maximizing one's effectiveness.	
1. Identifies one's strengths.	SA A NO D SD
2. Identifies the strengths of the groups, institutions, and associations with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD
3. Identifies the relationship between one's strengths and the strengths of the groups with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree
4. Recognizes the social barriers to full development that may exist.	SA A NO D SD
5. Suggests ways of maximizing one's effectiveness.	SA A NO D SD
D. Examines own beliefs and values and the relationship between these and behavior.	
1. Describes and explains own feelings and preferences about people, beliefs, and ways of life.	SA A NO D SD
2. Describes ways one expresses own feelings and preferences about people, beliefs, and ways of life.	SA A NO D SD
3. Identifies and gives reasons for one's own criteria for judgment of beliefs and actions of other people and for judgment of own beliefs and actions.	SA A NO D SD
4. Demonstrates a growing awareness of responsibility for one's own behavior.	SA A NO D SD
5. Demonstrates awareness of one's own acts and of how they affect others.	SA A NO D SD
6. Describes own personal response (action or attitude) to a dilemma situation and the possible consequences of the response to self and others.	SA A NO D SD
7. Identifies own beliefs and values, and those of others, in a dilemma situation involving members of family or peer groups.	SA A NO D SD
8. Identifies alternative responses to a dilemma situation, considers the possible consequences of these responses, and selects and defends a position.	SA A NO D SD

Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree

---

E. Develops the human relations skills and attitudes necessary to communicate with others.

1. Has positive interactions with individuals of all races, cultures, religions, mental and physical characteristics, when presented with such opportunities. SA A NO D SD

2. Respects the rights of others to behave in humanistic ways congruent with their value systems. SA A NO D SD

3. Encourages others to express their feelings and opinions. SA A NO D SD

4. Demonstrates understanding of others' viewpoints and feelings. SA A NO D SD

5. Asks for clarifications and elaboration of ideas of others. Clarifies and elaborates own ideas. SA A NO D SD

6. Provides emotional and intellectual support for others. SA A NO D SD

F. Expresses awareness of the physical, intellectual, and social conditions of human beings, and suggests ways these can be improved.

1. Expresses an interest in the physical, intellectual, and social conditions of human beings. SA A NO D SD

2. Suggests ways society can help improve the condition of human beings. SA A NO D SD

3. Suggests ways one can personally and practically help in improving the conditions of human beings. SA A NO D SD

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program--Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree				
G. Demonstrates a commitment to individual and group rights and acts in support of equal opportunity.					
1. Demonstrates respect for the moral and legal rights and basic freedoms of other people, and indicates why such respect is important.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
2. Acts in support of the rules or laws on one's society; works responsibly to change those laws which function unjustly.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
3. Demonstrates an interest or willingness to act in supporting open and equal opportunity, and explains why this is important.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
4. Participates individually, or with others, in removing legal, social, educational, and economic obstacles to the full development of individuals or groups.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
H. Demonstrates effective involvement in social interaction.					
1. Participates in making decisions at home, in school, in peer groups, or at work.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
2. Participates in setting, planning, achieving, and evaluating the goals of the groups to which one belongs.	SA	A	NO	D	SD
3. Participates in social, political, and economic activities carried on in own community.	SA	A	NO	D	SD

7. MODIFYING OBJECTIVES

By James E. Davis

Background Notes

The planning group is unlikely to be satisfied with the form and substance of all the statements of objectives. As indicated in the previous activity, substantial agreement on the objectives--enough so that most of them can be accepted for starters--is important. To achieve this level of agreement, group members may want to modify the selected objectives and/or add additional ones. This modification process is vital, as it establishes ownership of the curriculum document--a critical element in the implementation process.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 10-12.

Activity Objective: Participants should be able to modify selected statements of social studies objectives to reflect the planning group's philosophy and priorities.

Suggested Steps:

1. Decide with the planning group what will be modified and how the group wants to proceed. Here are some options:

    a. Examine each stated student outcome and decide either to accept it as written or reword it. (Caution: This could be a huge task, especially if the group decides to work on all statements of objectives.)

    b. Examine each student outcome. Take note of those that might be changed, but do not change them until content is selected and curriculum materials are chosen.

    c. Accept the student outcomes essentially as written, recognizing that they can be reworded later. Identify areas where good outcomes have not been stated; possible areas include

    --Humanities-oriented cognitive objectives, especially relating to the impact of literature, music, and art on society and vice versa.

--Computer literacy as it relates to social studies/social science education.

--Development of reading skills in the social studies. This also includes special attention to vocabulary development.

--Map and globe skill development, especially at the elementary level.

--Development and application of quantitative skills.

Then write the decided-upon objectives. Handout 10, "Action Verbs for Instructional Objectives," will be helpful in writing objectives.

2. Decide how to present the objectives in the curriculum guide. Handouts 11 and 12 provide two sample formats.

3. Proceed with the agreed-upon modification plan.

ACTION VERBS
FOR
INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

KNOWLEDGE: cites, defines, describes, identifies, lists, matches, names, points out, recalls, recognizes, relates, remembers, repeats, rephrases, reports, states, tells, writes

COGNITIVE PROCESSES:

Classifying: arranges, associates, catalogs, distinguishes, groups, labels, orders, organizes, outlines, places, rearranges, reorders, sorts, structures

Interpreting: composes, converts, defines, enacts, explains, expresses, illustrates, interprets, paraphrases, presents, renders, restates, simulates, states in own words, summarizes, transforms, translates

Comparing: cites, describes, detects, differentiates, discriminates, distinguishes, expresses, points out

Generalizing: composes, constructs, derives, develops, expresses, forms, formulates, generates, produces, proposes, relates

Inferring: deduces, develops, derives, draws, extends, extrapolates, fills in, formulates, generates, presents, proposes

Analyzing: analyzes, breaks down, detects, differentiates, divides, examines, experiments, expresses, extracts, identifies, illustrates, inspects, inventories, lists, outlines, points out, questions, relates, separates

Synthesizing: assembles, composes, constructs, combines, creates, depicts, derives, designs, develops, devises, expresses, formulates, illustrates, integrates, makes, organizes, prepares, plans, produces, puts together, proposes, synthesizes

Evaluating: appraises, argues, assesses, chooses, criticizes, decides, describes, evaluates, explains, grades, judges, justifies, measures, ranks, rates, rejects, scores, states worth of, validates, weighs

AFFECTIVE PROCESSES: advocates, acclaims, approves, believes in, chooses, defends, demonstrates, opposes, praises, prefers, reacts positively or negatively toward, recommends, rejects, selects, supports

SKILLS: carries out, completes, constructs, draws, executes, interprets, locates, measures, performs, puts into practice, shows, translates

FORMAT FOR OBJECTIVES: SAMPLE 1

I. Develops an understanding of the relationship between human beings and their social and physical environments in the past and present; develops an understanding of the origins, interrelationships, and effects of beliefs, values, and behavior patterns; and applies this knowledge to new situations and data.

Note: Objectives are keyed to student outcomes from the NAEP/MAEP objectives statements.

COURSES

Objectives	Elementary Level						Geog/ World Cultures 6/7	Colo. History 7	U.S. History 8	Civics 8	Geog. 9-10	World History 9-10	U.S. History 11	American Cultures 11	Economics 11-12	Psychology 12	U.S. Govt. 12	State & Local Govt. 12
	K	1	2	3	4	5												
Social Organization																		
I.A.1 Human Groups	E	E	E	E	S	S	S	E	S	S	S	E	S	E	S	S	S	S
2 Group Identification	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	E	E	E	S	E	S	E	S	-	S	S
3 Group Functions	-	-	-	S	E	-	S	E	E	S	S	E	E	E	E	-	S	S
4 Universals Among Groups	-	-	-	S	S	-	S	E	E	E	E	E	S	S	-	-	-	-
5 Settlement Patterns	-	S	S	S	S	S	S	E	E	S	S	S	S	-	S	-	S	-

S - Some attention to objective
E - Objective emphasized at grade level

Handout 12 1 of 1

FORMAT FOR OBJECTIVES: SAMPLE 2

The following represent agreed-upon K-12 goals and objectives for the school district social studies program. The objectives are organized into knowledge, skill, and attitude objectives. Following the statement of each objective is a key indicating where the objective will be introduced (P-primary, grades K-2; I-intermediate, grades 3-5; M-middle school, grades 6-8; S-senior high school, grades 9-12). Shading following the grade level letter means that the objective is addressed in the school years shaded.

KNOWLEDGE OBJECTIVES

A. Social Organization

1. Describes some of the groups people form such as family, peer, community, national, and international groups; gives explanations of how groups function and change. P I M S
2. Identifies some preferences among people that lead to group identification (e.g., common interest, common heritage). P I M S
3. Describes some of the functions and changes of basic institutions (e.g., educational, legal, religious, financial, health care, business) in various cultures. P I M S
4. Identifies "cultural universals" such as shelter, food, communications, socialization, family organization, and religion. P I M S
5. Describes some of the basic patterns of human settlement (e.g., nomadic, village, city) and describes similarities and differences between these patterns. P I M S
6. Identifies and describes some influences groups (e.g., family, peer) and institutions have on individual behavior and attitudes. P I M S

8. MAPPING CONTENT

By Frances Haley

Background Notes

In many school districts, planning committee members may not be familiar with the content taught at grade levels other than their own. This is not to fault committee members. A teacher's major concern is and should be what is happening in his/her own classroom. In order to choose content to be taught, however, all committee members must understand the district's current content pattern.

This is the first of three activities designed to assist the planning group in deciding on the scope and sequence of the content to be taught in social studies, K-12. This activity focuses on identifying (or mapping) the current content pattern. The next activity allows for considerable creativity in thinking about new content ideas, while the third activity in this set enables the planning group to make final decisions concerning the K-12 content sequence.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 13, 14, and/or 15.

Activity Objective: Participants should be able to describe the current social studies content pattern of the school district using a time and place, social studies offerings, and/or units of instruction analysis.

Suggested Steps:

1. In preparation for the activity, review the three handouts and determine which you wish to use. Depending on how social studies is presented in a district, Handout 13 ("Social Studies Units of Instruction") or Handout 14 ("Social Studies Offerings") may be most appropriate; in some districts, using Handout 13 for elementary-level analysis and Handout 14 for secondary-level analysis may be appropriate. Handout 15 provides a framework for analyzing the current program's balance in covering time and place.

2. As a second preparatory step, look over the two examples of completed handouts shown in Figures 5 and 6. These figures show Handouts 14 and 15 filled out to reflect "typical" school district patterns, in which the social studies curriculum is likely to be organized as follows: grades K-3, no formal offerings or a focus on the self, family, and community; grade 4, state history or geographic regions; grade 5, U.S. history; grade 6, world cultures; grade 7, world geography; grade 8, U.S. history; grade 9, world studies, civics, or consumer education/economics in one semester and law-related education in the other; grade 10, world history; grade 11, U.S. history; and grade 12, government or civics and a number of electives.

Figure 5 reflects that pattern, with no courses presented until grade 4. Most of the early content is oriented toward the behavioral sciences, with some emphasis on geographic skill development. Figure 6 clearly reflects the familiar "expanding horizons" pattern. The present is emphasized through grade 3, with emphasis on the past beginning at grade 4 and continuing throughout the rest of the curriculum. Only at grade 12 might students encounter some aspects of the future.

While being aware of the "typical" content pattern will be helpful to the coordinator or facilitator in conducting the activity, it is recommended that this information not be shared with participants until they have worked through the handouts on their own.

3. Divide the participants into small groups by grade level clusters. Give each group a handout to complete.

4. When the groups have completely filled out their handouts, post and discuss the results, ensuring that the handouts are corrected or supplemented where necessary. If all grade levels are not represented in the planning group, participants may need to inquire about content taught at a particular level.

5. When the discussion is concluded, duplicate the completed handouts for the files of all participants. Try to prevent the planning group from making any decisions concerning possible content changes at this stage.

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Figure 5

EXAMPLE SOCIAL STUDIES OFFERINGS ANALYSIS

	Grade Level												
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Social Science Disciplines Anthropology		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓					
Sociology	✓	✓	✓	✓								C or	C
Geography			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	C		✓			
Economics										C/✓			C
Political Science										✓			C/
History					C	C	C		C		C	C	
Psychology		✓	✓	✓									C
Philosophy													
Other Subject Offerings Career Education							✓			✓			
Ethnic, Women, and Other Minority Group Studies						✓						✓	C
Environmental Education													
Future Studies													
Global Studies							✓						✓
Law-Related Education										/C			
Values Education		✓	✓	✓									✓

Directions:* 1. Indicate by a check mark those disciplines, course offerings, and subjects which are taught, and the grade level at which they are taught.

2. Place a "C" at those grade levels where the discipline or subject offering is a course in your present sequence.

Figure 5

EXAMPLE TIME AND PLACE ANALYSIS

Indicate by an A, B, C or a, b, c, those places which are studied at the various grade levels in your present sequence.

Major Emphasis	Minor Emphasis
A - Past	a - Past
B - Present	b - Present
C - Future	c - Future

Me/Self	B a c	B a c	B a c									b	b
Home/Family	B	B a	B a		b						b	b	b
Neighborhood	B	B	B a										
Community/City		B a	B a	B									
Region			b		AB	a		A b	A b	b	b		
Nation						A		B a	A b			A b	B a c
World		a b	a b		B a	b	A b	B a		b	b	a	
Grade Level:	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

Handout 13

SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS OF INSTRUCTION

Unit Taught (Be Specific)

	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

Directions: Write in the units taught, and put a check mark in the grade level box where they are taught.

Handout 14

SOCIAL STUDIES OFFERINGS

Grade Level

	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Social Science Disciplines Anthropology													
Sociology													
Geography													
Economics													
Political Science													
History													
Psychology													
Philosophy													
Other Subject Offerings Career Education													
Ethnic, Women, and Other Minority Group Studies													
Environmental Education													
Future Studies													
Global Studies													
Law-Related Education													
Values Education													

Directions:
1. Indicate by a check mark those disciplines, course offerings, and subjects which are taught, and the grade level at which they are taught.
2. Place a "C" at those grade levels where the discipline or subject offering is a course in your present sequence.

TIME AND PLACE IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Indicate by an A, B, C or a, b, c, those places which are studied at the various grade levels in your present sequence.

Major Emphasis	Minor Emphasis
A - Past	a - Past
B - Present	b - Present
C - Future	c - Future

Me/Self													
Home/Family													
Neighborhood													
Community/City													
Region													
Nation													
World													
Grade Level:	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

9. DETERMINING THE SCOPE OF THE PROGRAM

By Roger Wangen and Craig Kissock

Background Notes

While the content sequence in social studies has remained basically the same for nearly 70 years, the profession continues to debate whether to include new courses, new and different course sequences, or problem-related courses in the curriculum. Classroom teachers have strong ideas about social-studies-related content they feel they must teach. The community also has a number of expectations about the content that must be included in any social studies program.

Within the context of tradition, teachers' ideas, and community expectations, there is still considerable latitude in determining the scope of a social studies program. This activity enables the planning group to think about including anything and everything they may wish to put into a K-12 social studies program. The activity gives all group members the opportunity to suggest their favorite ideas for content.

Although agreement on what to include in the K-12 social studies program must ultimately be reached, participants should be encouraged in this activity to think creatively about the scope of social studies content. A brainstorming format is used because it allows rapid generation of a number of ideas in a safe situation.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 16, 17 or 18, and 19. Lots of newsprint, marking pens, and masking tape are needed for this activity.

Activity Objective: Participants will identify as many ideas as possible related to the scope of a K-12 social studies program and make preliminary decisions concerning essential content to be included.

Suggested Steps:

1. In preparation for the activity, review Handouts 17 and 18, choosing one for use with the group. Handout 18, which addresses

problems, concepts, and student needs, may generate more wide-ranging ideas, but these ideas may be difficult to categorize. Handout 17, which focuses on knowledge, skills, and attitudes, is a more traditional approach, but may limit the ideas generated.

2. Introduce the activity, using the information in the Background Notes or your own ideas. Tell participants that in this activity they will have the opportunity to propose anything they have ever wanted to have included in a K-12 social studies program. Mention that some agreement on the content scope and sequence will ultimately be necessary, but for now people can get all their ideas on the table.

3. Distribute Handout 16, "Rules of Brainstorming." Then distribute either Handout 17 or 18.

4. Depending on the size of the group, organize the participants into small groups of four to six, assigning one brainstorming task to each group. If the planning group is quite small (six or fewer), you may want to conduct this activity in several sessions, having the entire group do all the brainstorming tasks.

5. Begin the brainstorming session(s). One member of each group should record individuals' responses on newsprint as they are spoken. Be sure that the brainstorming rules are followed, regardless of the number of groups brainstorming.

6. When all the groups have finished brainstorming, ask them to review their lists and (a) draw lines through any items that should not be included in a social studies program, (b) circle all items that should be given special emphasis, and (c) put a box around all items that should be included but not emphasized.

7. When all the small groups have completed the task and the responses are on view, ask a member of each group to review and summarize that group's brainstorming results. Frequently, this report will include differences of opinion that emerged when items were crossed out, circled, or boxed. Be sure to ask if anyone else in the group has any comments.

8. Ask the entire planning group for suggestions about items that might be added to any of the lists. Remind the group that these lists should reflect the total scope of a social studies program. No limitations are put on at this stage.

Because of the global nature of the questions in the brainstorm tasks, suggestions for specific content--wars, key countries, names of important people, important events--may be missing. If participants want to add such items, post them; however, they will soon see that they could add specific items for days without exhausting the possibilities. Remind the group, if necessary, that a statement of scope for social studies must by definition be broad and general. Specific content can be determined once the group has reached agreement on the scope of the program.

9. To conclude this activity, review Handout 19 with the participants. Point out that organizing the curriculum around social roles, while not an entirely new idea, may help solve some of the difficulties students (and some teachers) have with the relevance and importance of social studies. Have the entire group brainstorm ideas for how social studies can help students fulfill each role.

10. Save all the brainstorm results so they can be used in Activity 10.

RULES OF BRAINSTORMING

1. Say anything that comes to mind.
2. Do not discuss or criticize other people's statements.
3. Repeating someone else's idea is okay.
4. "Piggybacking" on someone else's idea is okay.
5. Enjoy silence.
6. Even if you think you have finished, keep going.

Handout 17

STUDENT KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND ATTITUDES

In three separate sessions, brainstorm answers to the following questions:

1. What knowledge should our district's K-12 social studies program impart? That is, what should students know when they complete the program?
2. What skills should our district's K-12 social studies program develop? That is, what should students be able to do when they complete the program?
3. What attitudes should our district's K-12 social studies program develop? That is, what kinds of feelings should students have about social issues, events, etc., and what do students value when they complete the program?

When the brainstorming task is completed, proceed with the following steps:

1. Draw a line through any items that should not be in the district's social studies program.
2. Circle all items that should be emphasized.
3. Put a box around all items that should be included but not emphasized.

PROBLEMS, CONCEPTS, AND STUDENT NEEDS

In three separate sessions, brainstorm the following:

1. Identify the most important problems facing humankind in today's global society; e.g., racism, war, poverty, inflation, energy, the environment.
2. Identify the "big" ideas or social science/social studies concepts that may be used as the basis of a social studies program. (A concept is an abstract or general idea about specific instances that have common properties or an identifiable relationship to one another. A useful concept is broad enough to transcend mere description but narrow enough to be meaningful. Some examples of useful concepts are family, interdependence, culture, change, scarcity, socialization, power, and prejudice.)
3. Identify the competencies that all students need in order to cope with the problems facing society today.

When the brainstorming task is complete, proceed with the following steps:

1. Draw a line through any items that should not be in the district's social studies program.
2. Circle all items that should be emphasized.
3. Put a box around all items that should be included but not emphasized.

SOCIAL ROLES AND THE SCOPE OF SOCIAL STUDIES

In our daily lives, we are engaged in a variety of roles--social roles. We are members of families, we work, we consume, etc. Many social studies programs focus on the role of citizen. While this role is very important, students must also be aware of and prepared to deal with other roles if they are to become effective participants in society--a goal of most social studies educators.

Listed and defined below are seven social roles.* For each role, brainstorm what students should learn in social studies to help them best fulfill that role.

Citizen:	A person who owes allegiance to, is entitled to certain rights from, and has certain responsibilities to a sovereign power or political entity.
Worker:	A person who engages in a conscious effort--usually for pay--to produce goods, services, and/or ideas for the benefit of self and/or others.
Consumer:	A person who buys and/or uses goods, services and resources.
Family Member:	A member of a group of people, usually related by birth, marriage, or adoption, who live together.
Friend:	A companion, linked by affection and esteem, with whom a person shares experiences, thoughts, and feelings.
Member of Social Groups:	A person who belongs to a group either by birth (e.g., male, female, Anglo, Black) or choice (e.g., church, civic group)
Self:	The development of one's full potentialities as a unique and competent person (e.g., self-concept, special interests).

Post the results of the brainstorming and keep them in mind as final content decisions are made.

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*For a more detailed treatment of these social roles and their relation to the social studies curriculum, see Social Roles: A Focus for Social Studies in the 1980s, by Douglas P. Superka and Sharryl Hawke (Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1982).

10. CHOOSING CONTENT

By James E. Davis

Background Notes

Choosing the content for a K-12 social studies program is probably the most critical step in the curriculum planning process. The content selected will provide direction for the materials selection effort.

If the other activities in the planning process have been carefully completed, ample information should be available to point to directions for content selection. It would be useful for the group to review the preliminary statements of rationale and objectives before making final content decisions, as content logically flows from rationale and objectives. The group should also be aware of content mandated by state or local education policy bodies. If the content mapping activity has been done, the nature of the current curriculum pattern should be clearly understood, and the preceding brainstorming activity should have identified some areas where that pattern might be changed.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 20-23.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) identify a format for presenting the K-12 social studies content sequence and (2) select the substance of the K-12 social studies program.

Suggested Steps:

1. Review with the group the status of the program-planning effort to date. What content does the rationale statement suggest? What do the statements of objectives suggest? Were some new directions indicated by the activity on determining scope? (Remember that the "typical" social studies content pattern has been in place for about 70 years. See section 2, pp. 16-18.) Are changes needed because of the needs of society, changes in the nature of students, or changes in the needs of the local community?

2. Have the group decide on a format for presenting the content sequence. How extensive and detailed will the presentation be? Will it be a listing? A matrix? If a matrix format is selected, the "Social Studies Units of Instruction" matrix can be used for grades K-6 and the "Social Studies Offerings" matrix for grades 7-12; Handouts 20 and 21 have been provided for that purpose. Appendix B also presents examples of other formats that can be used in presenting the content sequence. You may wish to reproduce one or more of these formats for use as handouts. A number of references listed in section 16 also present scope-and-sequence statements that can be examined for possible adaptation.

3. Determine the course/subject requirements that are "musts," whether mandated or regarded by the group or community as essential. Establish the grade levels at which these courses or subjects will be taught. Then determine the rest of the content sequence.

4. When the overall content sequence has been determined, distribute copies of Handouts 22 and 23, which suggest a number of social-role-related topics for each grade level. Ask the planning group to decide whether these or other topics related to social roles should be included in the final content plan.

5. To conclude this activity, ask the group to look back at the results of the activity related to the scope of the program. Have the topics/ideas/problems identified as important in that activity been included? What else should be covered in the K-12 program?

Handout 20

SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS OF INSTRUCTION MATRIX

	Grade Level						
Description of Unit	K	1	2	3	4	5	6

Handout 21

SOCIAL STUDIES OFFERINGS MATRIX

Social Science Disciplines						
Anthropology						
Sociology						
Geography						
Economics						
Political Science						
History						
Psychology						
Philosophy						
Other Subject Offerings Career Education						
Ethnic, Women, and Other Minority Group Studies						
Environmental Education						
Future Studies						
Global Studies						
Law-Related Education						
Values Education						
	7	8	9	10	11	12

SAMPLE TOPICS FOR K-6 SOCIAL STUDIES

	CITIZEN	WORKER	CONSUMER	FAMILY	FRIENDS	GROUPS	SELF
K-1	Rules Authority School rules Laws applicable to children	School Worker Responsibilities Rules Satisfaction	How Advertising Influences Us Television commercials Advertisements in the mail Making choices	What Is A Family? Roles Responsibilities Rules Interdependence of members	Need for Friends Playing with friends Working with friends Feelings about friends	Groups Humans Form Kinds of groups Responsibilities in groups Group rules	What Makes Me Special? Physical characteristics Abilities Feelings
2nd	Citizen Participation Protecting Our Environment Wise personal use of resources Joining with others in cleanup Choosing wise leaders	Relationship of Geography to Work How natural environment influence work choices Variety of jobs in geographic areas When natural environment causes workers to move	Using Natural Resources: Paper' From Trees to Paper Conserving our use of paper Recycling paper	Family History Ancestors Traditions Family influence on learning	Conflicts Among Friends Name calling Exclusion Resolving conflicts	Neighborhoods Effect of natural environment on neighborhoods Working together on a neighborhood project Changing neighborhoods	How I Am Like Others Basic needs Basic wants Satisfying needs and wants
3rd	Governments Citizen of my city Citizen of my state Citizen of my nation	Need for Work Satisfying personal needs Satisfying needs for goods Satisfying need for progress and problem solutions	Functions of Money Using money to satisfy needs Buying Saving	Use of Family Resources Family members as human resources Conserving energy at home Resolving conflicts about resources	Making New Friends Finding out about a new friend Telling a new friend about yourself Spending time with friends	Ethnic Groups Nature of ethnic groups Immigration and migration Traditions and customs	How I Use My Time Personal interests Personal responsibilities Making choices
4th	Rights Early colonialists commitment to rights Denial of rights Equal Rights Amendment	Tools of Workers Tools in early societies From tools to technology Effect of technology on career choices	Services We Use: Recreation How public recreational services began Private recreational services Using leisure time and services wisely	Changing Roles in Family How family roles have changed over time Working parents Your changing family responsibilities	Being a Friend Helping a friend Loyalty Being yourself while being a friend	Effect of Natural Disasters on Groups Relationship of groups to natural environment Groups' response to crises Interdependence of groups	How My Natural Environment Affects Me Relation to living things How environment affects my activities Affect of natural environment on job choices
5th	Laws How laws are made How laws are enforced How laws are changed	Interdependence of Workers Early workers dependence on others Trade increases interdepencence International trade today	Products We Buy: Blue Jeans Levi Strauss "invents" jeans From cottonfield to store Consumer decisions: buying jeans	Family Likenesses and Differences Likenesses and differences among classmates' families Families around the world	Kinds of Friends Acquaintences Best friends Why friendships change	Clustering of Groups Why people form groups How groups expand How groups change over time	Effects of History on Me Influence of family history Influence of community history Influence of nation's history
6th	Natural Environment and Political Systems Geographic boundaries Political boundaries Interdependence between resources and politics	Workers in History Family industries Industrialization Worker's rights	Our Future Needs: Oil Sources of oil Other countries viewpoint Present vs future needs	Family Needs: Shelter How natural environment affects shelter decisions How financial resources affect shelter decisions Family moves in history: Homestead Act	Influence of Friends Learning from friends Behaving like friends Leading and following	Membership in Groups Birth membership Optional membership Effect of groups on members	People I Admire Why we admire others Admiring family and friends Admiring famous people

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Handout 23 1 of 1

SAMPLE APPROACHES AND TOPICS FOR 7-12 SOCIAL STUDIES

	CITIZEN	WORKER	CONSUMER	FAMILY	FRIENDS	GROUP	SELF
7th Social Studies (focus on self, family, friends, and group)	Who decides? (authority) Your rights as a U.S. citizen Your responsibilities as a citizen	Work opportunities Changes in work opportunities Development of child labor laws	Economic wants and needs Personal decisions about use of resources Societal decisions about use of resources	Relation of family to society Conflict between family and friends Roles in families	Friendship and stages of development Same sex friends Opposite sex friends	Behavioral norms Likenesses and differences among members of a group Likenesses and differences among groups	Given and earned identities Innate and learned behavior Being alone
8th (U.S. history)	U.S. history organized around seven social roles						
9th Social Studies (focus on worker, consumer, citizen)	Traffic laws Drug laws Family laws	Influence of family on job choices Employer responsibilities Employee responsibilities Social Security	Supply and Demand Historical changes in supply and demand Future projections for supply and demand	Likenesses and differences among families Differing rules Differing expectations	Crimes in friendship Competition Exclusion	Kinds of groups socio-economic Influence of groups on identity	Assessing abilities Assessing interests Assessing traits
10th World Cultures	World cultures organized around seven social roles						
11th U.S. History	U.S. history, chronological study •						
12th U.S. Government Electives	U.S. Government organized around or with attention to social roles Social Science Elective 1--Interdisciplinary study focusing on self, family, friends, and groups Social Science Elective 2--Interdisciplinary study focusing on consumer, worker, and citizen Social Science Elective 3--Community-based application of social science learning Economics, Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology, Geography--Taught as separate discipline-structured courses						

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11. IDENTIFYING AND SELECTING CURRICULUM MATERIALS

By Frances Haley and Sharryl Davis Hawke

Background Notes

After planners have established a rationale for their program, selected objectives, and chosen content to attain those objectives, they are ready to identify and select appropriate curriculum materials.

Many factors must be considered in choosing curriculum materials. Among them are (1) relationship to the program objectives, (2) potential student interest, (3) level of difficulty, (4) relationship to program content focus, (5) teacher needs, and (6) cost.

One option open to a curriculum committee is to select curriculum materials first, before developing objectives, content, or a rationale. However, if a planning group has used the activities in this guide step by step, its members will have established most major criteria for selecting curriculum materials.

As the group begins to consider materials, members probably will find many that meet some, but not all, of their criteria. They may also come across more than one textbook or set of materials that fit their objectives. In either case they will have to make a decision: Should they choose one text or several texts? Will they need to choose some supplementary materials in order to meet all their program needs?

One way to answer these questions is to pilot test materials. Although pilot testing will not answer all such questions, it will provide additional information that will be helpful in making decisions. There really is no way of predicting how materials will work with students and teachers until they have been used in the classroom.

Pilot testing takes time: the selection of pilot teachers must be done carefully, criteria for evaluating the pilot test must be established and applied, and a reporting system must be designed. Although we have not provided detailed suggestions for accomplishing these steps, we urge planners to consider including pilot testing in the program planning process when possible.

This activity is designed to help program planners identify and select curriculum materials. A planning group may decide to use only part of the activity or to follow each of the steps in order. Regardless of how a group goes about selecting materials, we recommend that *some systematic process* be used. All the time and energy spent in preplanning and curriculum design can be wasted if the final materials selection is not based on previous decisions.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 24-29; publishers' catalogs; samples of prospective materials; and *plenty* of newsprint, masking tape, and marking pens.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) determine district or school criteria for materials selection, (2) identify available materials that meet district criteria, (3) analyze materials using specific agreed-upon criteria, (4) make preliminary selection of materials for pilot testing, and (5) make final materials selection on the basis of results of analyses and pilot testing.

Suggested Steps:

1. Using the brainstorm technique described in section 9, have the group list all criteria that are important in selecting curriculum materials. This list might include such factors as:
    a. Sequential skill development.
    b. Appropriate readability level.
    c. Multicultural emphasis.
    d. Student activity emphasis.
    e. Incorporation of conceptual approach.
    f. Emphasis on inquiry methods.
    g. Variety of instructional settings for each concept.
    h. Valuing activities at each grade level.
    i. Chronological sequence where appropriate.
    j. Interdisciplinary approach in dealing with social science.

Your list should reflect your own rationale, objectives, and content decisions in addition to any other considerations deemed important. Be sure to consider teacher, school, and community needs in addition to student needs.

2. Identify available curriculum materials that meet your list of broad criteria. (Appendix C lists the names and addresses of social studies publishers.) If your state has textbook guidelines, obtain this list for identifying appropriate materials.

3. Write to publishers or contact their local representatives, requesting sample copies of the materials. Be sure you get all the components--student materials, teacher materials, tests, workbooks, audiovisual materials. Various components frequently differ in quality, so it is important to look at all the pieces of a materials package, not just the student text. If you have decided to pilot test materials, ask the publishers' representatives if you can obtain their materials for the pilot test.

4. Plan a half-day workshop to introduce planners to the skills and procedures used in analyzing materials. You may wish to invite only members of your social studies curriculum committee or you may want to expand the committee to include department heads, representatives from each school, administrators, students, parents, representatives of special-interest groups (for example, ethnic groups or women's groups), and specialists in such areas as remedial reading.

5. Conduct the workshop. A suggested agenda, along with the approximate time required for each activity, is presented below. (You may want to begin by brainstorming criteria for materials selection, as in step 1 above, in which case extra time should be allotted for the introduction.)

a. Introduction: Explain the purpose of the workshop and the need for acquiring selection skills (10 min.).

b. Opening task: Divide the participants into groups of three or four and ask each small group to examine one piece of curriculum material. On the basis of this brief examination, each group should list from two to five of the most-distinctive characteristics of its sample materials. Ask the groups to post their lists on sheets of newsprint when they have finished (30 min.).

c. Involve the whole group in a discussion of the commonalities and differences evident in the lists. Encourage the group to sort these into general categories of characteristics that can be evaluated (20 min.).

d. Distribute copies of Handout 24, "Materials Analysis Form," and allow participants time to look it over. Explain that information about the sample materials will be recorded on this form during the workshop, and that some participants will be using the same form to complete the actual materials analysis after the workshop (30 min.).

e. Ask participants to reassemble into their original groups of three or four and distribute copies of Handout 25, "Determining Readability." Explain that they will be using the Fry readability formula to determine the reading levels of their sample materials, but should also consider the other factors described in the handout. The results of the analyses should be recorded in section 1c of the "Materials Analysis Form," along with any comments regarding such factors as type size, amount of print on page, and use of advance organizers (45 min.).

f. Distribute Handout 26, "Suggested Criteria for Evaluating Social Studies Materials for Sexism," and ask the small groups to evaluate their samples of curriculum materials for sexual bias, using the questions on the handout as a guide. The results should be recorded in section 6c of the "Materials Analysis Form" (30 min.).

g. Distribute Handout 27, "Suggested Criteria for Evaluating Social Studies Materials for Ethnic Bias," and ask the small groups to evaluate their samples of curriculum materials for racial or ethnic bias. The results should be recorded in section 6d of the "Materials Analysis Form" (30 min.).

h. Distribute Handout 28, "Materials Summary," and ask each small group to fill it out as completely as possible on the basis of the analyses performed thus far. Participants should refer to the posted lists of distinctive characteristics as well as to their handout sheets. Allow time for answering questions about sections of the analysis form that were not dealt with directly during the workshop session (30 min.).

i. Explain that an extensive analysis of all the potentially appropriate curriculum materials will be performed later by a smaller working group, using the criteria developed and analysis forms presented in the workshop. You may want to appoint the working group at this time, or to ask for additional volunteers if the core group has already been appointed. If not all of the workshop participants are members of the planning committee, you might want to determine whether the workshop group wants to reconvene for the purpose of examining the materials that are eventually selected, either before or after they are pilot tested. In any case, this workshop activity should be concluded by an explanation of how, and by whom, curriculum materials will finally be selected.

6. Because the organization of the actual analysis of materials will necessarily depend on available personnel and funds and on the number of materials packages included in the analysis, we cannot recommend a standard procedure. However, we do make the following suggestions:

a. Each set of materials should be analyzed by at least two persons--preferably three--working separately. This increases the reliability of the analysis.

b. Each component at every grade level should be examined. Different authors may write at different reading levels for the same grade, and a multiple-author text or text series is likely to contain a variety of approaches and reading levels. Moreover, such components as teacher's guides, tests, workbooks, and audiovisual materials often are developed by someone other than the author of the text. So take a careful look at everything in the package.

c. A summary form should be developed, or you may wish to use the sample form in Handout 24. The persons who have completed the analysis of each materials package should work together to prepare the summary form.

d. A useful option is to have a broader base of teachers, administrators, and community members do written analyses of curriculum materials being considered for adoption. Given time constraints, extensive and thorough analysis may not be possible. However, interested individuals can provide useful information related to possible materials. In some school districts, materials are circulated to schools, and faculty members, administrators, and community persons are given opportunities to review the materials. To obtain results that are manageable, an easy-to-use analysis form should be filled out by anyone analyzing materials. A sample form for this kind of analysis is included as Handout 29. Most of the important information required for curriculum analysis is included in the handout.

7. When all analyses and summaries are complete, final selection should be made by a designated individual or committee. If you pilot test the materials, the results of these tests should be added to the summary analyses.

MATERIALS ANALYSIS FORM

General Instructions

For the most part, no narrative is required. Most of the items require a check ( ) answer; a few require numerical ratings. At the end of each section a space has been left for you to extend or explain any answer in that section.

Several items have "scored" ratings, based on a rating of "0" for none, "1" for poor, "2" for average, and "3" for excellent. If the item does not apply to the materials, write "NA." At the end of the instrument is a form for recording the ratings on these items.

Three sections (4c, 5c, and 6a) will require different treatment, depending on the kind of textbook and/or program being analyzed. If the program is in secondary social studies, all of the subpoints in 4c may apply. If a government, economics, or sociology textbook is being analyzed, only one may be appropriate. In all instances, you should rate only those items that apply to the materials. If you are analyzing an elementary text, you may wish to add objectives under "other."

Section 5c should not be rated unless you are familiar with a particular school's content focus. This is a school decision.

Section 6a should receive "NA" in the rating box except for U.S. history text analyses, in which case you should note in writing the extent to which minorities, including women, are included in the textual and/or visual materials.

Name of Analyst ______________________ Date of Analysis ____________

Title of Materials ______________________________

Publisher ______________________________

Name and Title of Author(s) ______________________________

____

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1. Product Data

Provide specific answers for each of the following:

a. Components: (You may wish to attach list with prices. Note date of catalog.)

____

____

b. Grade level: Publisher's assessment ____________________

Analyst's assessment ____________________

c. Reading level: Publisher's assessment ____________________

Fry Readability Scale: (see Handout 25)

Narrative ____________________ __________

Primary sources ____________________

Other factors of note ____________________

d. Publication date and edition ____________________

e. Time required ______ ____________________

f. Field tested ___ Yes ___ No

If yes, are results available? ___ Yes ___ No

Source ____________________

g. Number of pages ____________________

h. Student text binding:
Hardcover _____
Papercover _____
Other __________

Rating: 1h ☐

i. Need for teacher training recommended by analyst:

_____ Little or none _____ Some _____ Much

Comments on Section 1:

2. Support Materials

a. Teacher's guide: (Rating should be based on analyst's judgment of comprehensive, helpfulness, and usefulness.) Rating: 2a

_____ Guide _____ Annotated edition

b. Tests _____ Yes _____ No

If yes, complete the following: Rating: 2b

Format of tests:

_____ Spirit masters
_____ In teacher's guide
_____ Other (specify) _____________________________________

Type of items:

	Mainly high level	Mainly low level	Balance of high and low levels
___ Cognitive	_____	_____	_____
___ Affective	_____	_____	_____
___ Skill	_____	_____	_____

Are tests related to objectives? _____ Yes _____ No

c. Workbooks _____ Yes _____ No Rating 2c

If yes, complete the following:

Type of workbook activities:

___ Required
___ Optional
___ Reinforcement
___ Enrichment
___ Student-directed
___ Teacher-directed

d. Audiovisual materials _____ Yes _____ No Rating: 2d

If yes, refer to catalog listing for type and description.

Comments on Section 2:

3. Student Text Format

Rating: 3

Indicate the extent of use of the following items:

a. Body-of-book format

Item	Little or no use	Moderate use	Extensive use	
Advance organizers				Chapters
				Units
Review questions				Chapters
				Units
Tests				Chapters
				Units
Extending activities				Chapters
				Units
Illustrations				Chapters
				Units
Maps				Chapters
				Units
Charts				Chapters
				Units
Photographs				Chapters
				Units
Art reproductions				Chapters
				Units
Glossary of terms				Chapters
				Units

b. End-of-book format

Item	Little or no use	Moderate use	Extensive use
Bibliography			
Comprehensive index			
Glossary of terms			

Comments on Section 3:

4. Objectives

Rating 4

Indicate "yes" or "no" for each item.

a. General _____ Yes _____ No

Cognitive _____ Yes _____ No
Affective _____ Yes _____ No
Skill _____ Yes _____ No
Are evaluative measures based on general objectives?
_____ Yes _____ No

b. Specific _____ Yes _____ No

Behavioral _____ Yes _____ No
Cognitive _____ Yes _____ No
Affective _____ Yes _____ No
Skill _____ Yes _____ No
Are evaluative measures based on specific objectives?
_____ Yes _____ No

c. Do the objectives conform to the goals and objectives of the school in the following categories?

Rating: 4c

Self-concept _____ Yes _____ No
Social studies skills _____ Yes _____ No
Economics _____ Yes _____ No
Geography _____ Yes _____ No
Political science/government _____ Yes _____ No
Sociology/anthropology _____ Yes _____ No
History/culture _____ Yes _____ No
Other _____________________ _____ Yes _____ No
_____________________ _____ Yes _____ No
_____________________ _____ Yes _____ No
_____________________ _____ Yes _____ No

Comments on Section 4:

5. Content

Note specific answers to each of the following:

a. What is the content approach (conceptual, social sciences, affective domain, other)?

____
____
____

b. What is the specific subject matter focus of the text?

____

____

____

c. Does the content focus conform to the emphasis(ses) of your school?

Rating: 5c

_____ Yes _____ No

d. Could the materials be easily adapted to include a career education focus? _____ Yes _____ No

If yes, briefly explain how. ______________________________

____

____

Comments on Section 5:

6. Special Content Considerations

a. Inclusion of minority contributions (note particularly Native Americans, Mexican role in the Southwest, blacks other than Civil War and slavery)

Rating: 6a

_____ Poor _____ Average _____ Excellent

b. Possible areas of controversy (list): ____________________

____

____

c. Sex stereotyping ___ None ___ Some ___ Much

If any, give specific examples: ________________

Rating: 6c

____

____

d. Race/ethnic stereotyping

Rating: 6d

___ None ___ Some ___ Much

If any, give specific examples: ____________________

____

____

e. Use of primary source documents Rating: 6e

___ None ___ Some ___ Much

If some or much, describe briefly how primary source documents are used.

f. Declaration of Independence (if appropriate)

___ Yes ___ No ___ Annotated

U.S. Constitution (if appropriate)

___ Yes ___ No ___ Annotated

g. Other (specify) ______________________________

Comments on Section 6:

7. Teaching Strategies

If there is more than one answer, rank according to the order of importance.

a. Major teaching strategies (discussion, lecture, inquiry) Rating: 7a

b. Major student involvement activities (discussion, listening, writing, reading) Rating: 7b

c. Do the strategies provide opportunity for individualization? Rating. 7c

___ Yes ___ Some ___ No

Comments on Section 7:

8. Distinguishing Characteristics

Note emphasis on inquiry, skills, subject matter.

Comments on Section 8:

9. Rating (0 = none; 1 = poor; 2 = average; 3 = excellent)

Item	1h	2a	2b	2c	2d	3	4	5
Rating								

Item	5c	6a	6c	6d	6e	7a	7b	7c
Rating								

Comments on Section 9:

10. Evaluative Statement

Write a short (one or two paragraphs) statement describing your judgment of the material. You should be sure to specify your criteria for evaluation. Please use a separate piece of paper for the evaluative statement.

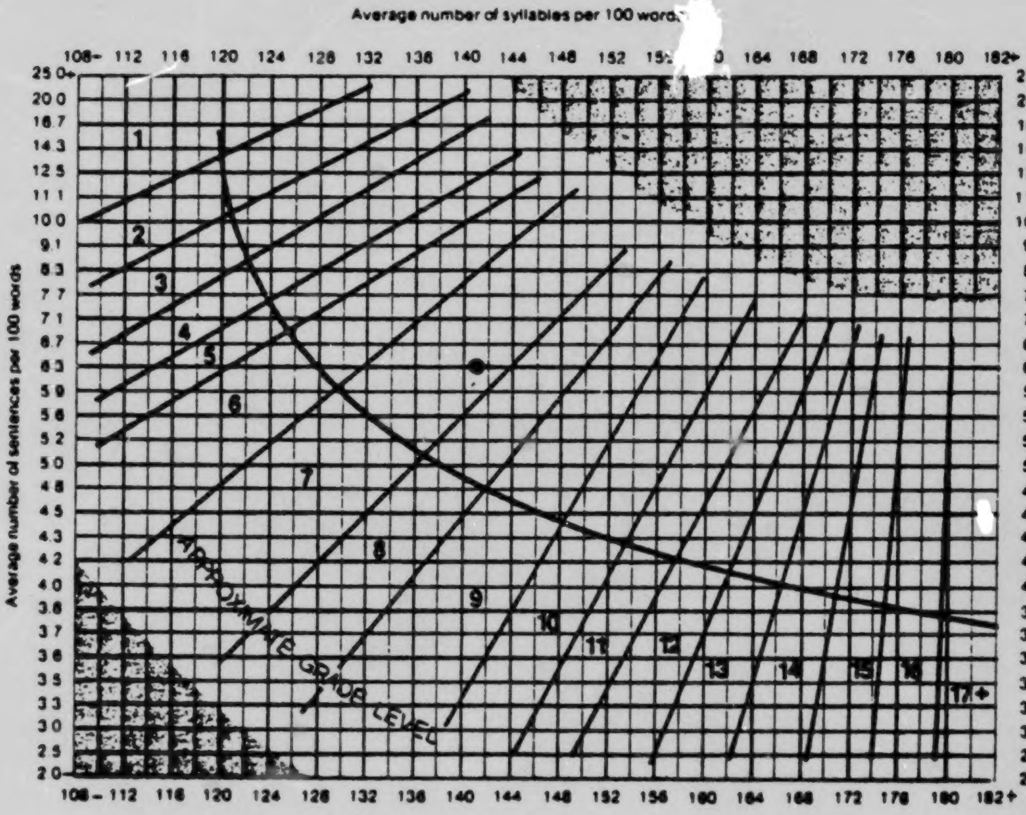
BEST COPY AVAILABLE

DETERMINING READABILITY

Students will not benefit from even the best-designed curriculum materials unless they can read them. Thus, reading level is an important factor in determining whether materials are appropriate for the grade levels at which they will be introduced. Readability formulas usually combine measures of sentence length and word length or difficulty. The Fry Graph for Estimating Readability assesses these factors by counting the average number of sentences and syllables in sample 100-word passages of a book. We have reproduced the graph here along with instructions for its use. A discussion of factors not accounted for in readability formulas follows the instructions.

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY — EXTENDED

by Edward Fry, Rutgers University Reading Center, New Brunswick, N.J. 08904



How to Use the Fry Readability Graph

1. Randomly select three passages and count out exactly 100 words in each, starting with the beginning of a sentence. Be sure to count all proper nouns, initializations, and numerals. (A word is defined as a group of symbols with a space on either side; thus, "Joe," "IRA," "1945," and "&" are each one word.)

2. Count the number of sentences in each 100-word passage, estimating the length of the fraction of the last sentence to the nearest one-tenth.

3. Count the total number of syllables in each 100-word passage. If you don't have a hand counter available, an easy way is to put a mark above every syllable after the first one in each word; when you get to the end of the passage, count the number of marks and add 100. Small calculators can also be used as counters by pushing the numeral 1, then pushing the + sign for each word or syllable when counting. (A syllable is defined as a phonetic syllable. Generally, there are as many syllables as vowel sounds. For example, "stopped" is one syllable and "wanted" is two syllables. When counting syllables for numerals and initializations, count one syllable for each symbol. For example, "1945" is four syllables, "IRA" three syllables, and "&" one syllable.)

4. Find the average sentence length and syllable length for the three passages, as shown in this example:

	Sentences per 100 words	Syllables per 100 words
100-word sample, page 5	6.6	124
100-word sample, page 89	5.5	141
100 word sample, page 150	6.8	158
	3)18.9	3)423
	6.3	141

5. Find the lines on the graph that correspond to the average sentence length (horizontal line) and average syllable length (vertical line) in the sample passages. Place a dot where the two lines intersect. The area in which the dot falls indicates the approximate grade level of the materials in terms of readability. Our sample graph shows a seventh-grade reading level.

NOTE: If the three sample passages show great variability, selecting and measuring several additional samples will enhance the reliability of the test. If the dot falls into one of the gray areas on the graph, the grade level score should be considered invalid.

Some Additional Considerations in Determining Readability

Many characteristics of a written work, including content and grammatical style, affect students' ability to read that work. The following are some factors that should be considered in assessing the readability of text materials.

Content/Presentation

1. Generally, the shorter the sentences, paragraphs, and chapters in a work, the lower the readability level. However, take note of unusual writing styles or difficult stylistic variations in sentence structure that may make understanding a passage more difficult.
2. Definitions of new terms may be placed in the text, in marginal notes, in a glossary, or in some combination of these alternatives. Different placements may be more appropriate for different groups of students.
3. For ease in reading, vocabulary development should be sequenced to go from simple to complex.
4. The number of new ideas introduced in any narrative passage is an important factor. If many new ideas are presented in a relatively short passage, that passage will be more difficult for students to read. Conversely, previous experience with content covered in a passage will make that passage easier for students to read.
5. Advance organizers often help direct the student's reading, thus lessening the difficulty of the reading task.
6. Passages that address issues that spark student interest are more likely to be read.

Format/Design

1. The amount of print on a page affects readability. A great deal of print per page can make a book difficult and intimidating for students to read. The publisher must make trade-offs in determining how much print to place on each page; the publisher who opts for comprehensive coverage of content or tight control on costs may sacrifice general attractiveness and reading ease. Thus, the amount of print on a page may be a clue to the publisher's general philosophy.

2. Print size varies somewhat from text to text. The amount of leading (white space) placed between lines varies more substantially and can affect reading ease and general appearance of the text.

3. Text that runs into the gutter of a book makes reading more difficult.

4. Most texts are presented in a single- or double-column format. Single columns that are too wide, double columns separated by a narrow margin, and triple columns can have a negative effect on readers who have difficulty tracking.

5. Use of color enhances the general attractiveness of the text, making it more appealing to students. High contrast between the print and paper also eases reading. Print placed over photographs or on colored paper may be difficult for some students to read.

6. Graphics and pictures will aid students in reading if the illustrations are tied to the narrative, reinforcing or supplementing the narrative message in some way. Placement of illustrations is also important. Graphics that break up a passage are not helpful. Illustrations placed at the beginning or end of a passage or used to divide sections will be helpful to students if used in instruction.

Handout 26 1 of 2

SUGGESTED CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR SEXISM

1. Do females appear as frequently as males?

2. Is sexist language used?

Sexist	Preferred
Man	People, persons
He	He/she or they...them or one
Caveman, businessman, chairman, congressman	Cave people; business people or business person; chairperson or chair; congressperson, representative, or legislator
Woman doctor, woman lawyer	Doctor, lawyer

3. Are females portrayed in a limited and stereotyped manner? Watch for the following characteristics:

a. Uncreative and unimaginative (after all, how many female geniuses are there?).

b. Helpless, dependent on men.

c. Fearful, worrisome, overemotional.

d. Vain, preoccupied by clothes, appearance, romance.

e. Inactive, unathletic, weak.

f. Secondary to men, or as their acouterements. (One text reads, "Pioneers brought their wives and children West." How would it sound if it were "The pioneers brought their husbands and children West"? How often do you read, "The man and wife"...not "the woman and husband"...?)

g. Less bright, especially in science and math.

h. Ridiculous (recall the stereotype of the old-maid schoolteacher).

i. Tricky, sneaky, mean, nasty (the witch, the bitch, the neurotic wife or career woman, etc.).

4. Are females relegated to passive background roles rather than assigned active leading positions?

5. Are females alone depicted as nurturant and domestic?

6. Is the viewer/reader given the impression that interesting, acceptable, or achievement-oriented females are the exception?

7. Are employed women pictured in low-status positions or in positions subordinate to men (always the secretary, never the boss)?

8. Are people shown solely in traditional roles and lifestyles? (Women as housewives, mothers, teachers of young children, nurses, secretaries; men as breadwinners who seldom engage in indoor housework or child care. Are all adults married? Are any single-parent families shown?)

9. Are adjectives describing familial status or physical appearance used more often to describe women than men? (All the attractive blondes seem to be female; we always know if someone is a mother, but we're seldom aware of who is a father.)

10. Are females pictured as engaged in activity or as merely watching males perform?

11. Are most women pictured at home, doing housework and wearing aprons? (One seldom sees a woman driving a car in books for young children!)

12. Are traditional "female" values, such as concern for people, sympathy, and gentleness, given as much respect and attention as the traditionally "masculine" values of competition, strength, and bravado? Are both kinds of values offered as appropriate to all people?

13. Are women insulted by patronizing phrases or outright put-downs (e.g., the adjective "shrill" to describe a voice or "promiscuous" to describe female sexual behavior)? Are adult women called "girls," implying that they haven't grown up?

14. Are female children pictured as smaller than males, and are females generally in the background?

15. Are comments about women's contributions to history integrated throughout the material?

16. Are woman's suffrage and other women's movements given adequate--and respectful--coverage?

17. Is history written solely in terms of wars, or does the material include information about domestic life, social welfare, education, and other areas where women have made significant impact?

18. Does personification of inanimate objects and animals involve the female as frequently as the male, and without traditional stereotypes?

This list of criteria was adapted from Marjorie Stern, ed., "Changing Sexist Practices in the Classroom," in Women in Education (Washington: American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO, n.d.) and was based in part on Mary McEvoy Daum's "A Study in Sexism" in Children's Catalog, Easy Books (University of Minnesota, July 1972).

SUGGESTED CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR ETHNIC BIAS

1. Is the material educationally sound?

    a. Is the author's rationale clear and appropriate?
    b. Are cognitive and affective objectives made clear, and are they appropriate?
    c. Are teaching modes and strategies clearly defined, and are they appropriate?

2. Is the material adaptable to your situation?

    a. Is the material appropriate for your class composition?
    b. Is the material appropriate for the community in which your school is located?
    c. If used separately, will the materials present a balanced view of ethnic groups?

3. How sound is the ethnic content of the materials?

    a. Do the materials show and discuss different ethnic groups relating to each other, or are groups shown in isolation?
    b. Do the materials show actual examples of the language or dialect of the ethnic group?
    c. How accurate are the historical facts presented in the materials?
    d. Do major omissions distort the historical accuracy of the materials?
    e. How free of bias is the overall content of the materials?
    f. To what extent do the materials stereotype members of the ethnic group?
    g. Do the materials portray a diversity of lifestyles within the ethnic group?
    h. Is the ethnic group presented from only one viewpoint or from many points of view?
    i. To what extent do the materials portray the influence of the ethnic group on life in the United States?
    j. Do the materials emphasize the ethnic group's heroes to the exclusion of its other members?
    k. To what extent do the materials promote student understanding of the universality of human joys and problems?
    l. To what extent do the materials promote the concept of assimilation (groups "melting" together in society until they become indistinguishable)?
    m. To what extent do the materials promote the concept of ethnic pluralism (groups living together in harmony and mutual respect while maintaining separate identities)?
    n. To what extent do the materials promote student appreciation of all ethnic groups?

4. How good are the materials, overall?

    a. In general, how sound is the content of these materials?
    b. In general, how innovative are these materials?
    c. In general, of what quality is the physical and technical presentation of the materials?

MATERIALS SUMMARY

Title of Materials ______________________________

Publisher ______________________________

Subject Area ______________________________
(Social studies, U.S. history, American government, legal education, area studies, etc.)

Grade Level(s)

K___ 1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___ 6___ 7___ 8___ 9___ 10___ 11___ 12___

Components

Hardcover texts _____ Softcover texts _____ Teacher's guide _____

Workbooks _____ Tests _____ Audiovisual materials _____

Other ______________________________

Overall Reading Level:

At grade level _____ Above grade level _____ Below grade level _____

Cost Per Pupil:

Essential components ____________ All components ____________

Developer's General Rationale or Major Goal ______________________________

____

____

Program Objectives:

Cognitive _____ Affective _____ Skill _____

Content Approach (elementary)

Conceptual _________ Discipline-based _________

Affective _________ Other ______________________________

Concept Approach (secondary)

U.S. History
Chronological _____ Thematic _____ Topical _____ Other _____

U.S. Government
Structural/legal _____ Behavioral _____ Other ____________

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Subject Focus

K-1 ____________________ 7 ____________________
2 ____________________ 8 ____________________
3 ____________________ 9 ____________________
4 ____________________ 10 ____________________
5 ____________________ 11 ____________________
6 ____________________ 12 ____________________

Major Teaching Strategy ____________________
____

Extent of Teacher Materials

Detailed _____ Minimal _____

Major Student Involvement ____________________

Inclusion of Individualizing Activities/Components

Yes _____ No _____

Ethnic/Minority Dimensions Appropriate to District Population and Learning Goals

Yes _____ No _____

Explain:

Representation of Sexes Appropriate to District Learning Goals

Yes _____ No _____

Explain:

Program Strengths:

Program Weaknesses:

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ABBREVIATED MATERIALS ANALYSIS FORM

This analysis system was designed to assist those involved in assessing materials appropriate for the district social studies program. Ratings on the criteria listed are as follows: 1-Does not meet criteria; 2-Partially meets criteria; 3-Mostly meets criteria; 4-Fully meets criteria; N/A-Criteria not applicable for grade level.

Name of Analyst ______________________________

Materials Title ______________________________

Publisher ______________________________

Copyright Date ______________________________

Grade Level (according to publisher) ____________________

1. Readability of Student Materials
   a. Publisher's assessment ____________________
   b. Fry Readability assessment ____________________

	1	2	3	4	N/A
2. Physical Characteristics					
a. General attractiveness					
b. Durability					
c. Print/photograph/art/graphic/color quality					
3. Rationale and Objectives					
a. Degree to which text rationale meets district rationale					
b. Degree to which knowledge objectives meet district knowledge objectives					
c. Degree to which skill objectives meet district skill objectives					
d. Degree to which attitude objectives meet district attitude objectives					
4. Content					
a. Appropriate to district scope and sequence					
b. Appropriateness of cognitive content					
c. Appropriateness of skill content					
d. Appropriateness of affective content					
e. Free of bias (religion, sex, political, ethnic)					

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	1	2	3	4	N/A
5. Instructional Characteristics					
a. Variety of learning activities					
b. Consideration of student developmental levels					
c. Appropriateness of learning activities					
6. Teacher Materials					
a. Ease of use					
b. Preparation time					
c. Organization					
d. Completeness					
e. Use of references					
f. Evaluation procedures available					
7. Other Considerations					
a. Unit/chapter organization (introduction, summary, etc.)					
b. Format (table of contents, glossary, index, bibliography)					
c. Use of primary source materials					
d. Writing style					
e. Availability of supplementary materials					

8. Distinguishing Characteristics

9. Overall Evaluative Comments

12. TYING TEXT OBJECTIVES TO PROGRAM GOALS AND STUDENT OUTCOMES

By James E. Davis and Sharryl Davis Hawke

Background Notes

In the activity on selecting goals and objectives (section 6), two levels of objectives were treated--program goals and student outcomes. A much more specific level of objectives--instructional objectives--can also be developed. Instructional objectives are those related to specific teaching units or daily teaching activities. Defining or writing down detailed lists of instructional objectives is likely to meet with considerable teacher resistance.

If demands to become very specific about objectives by grade level or by course are placed on the planning group, this optional activity can help meet those demands while avoiding the overwhelming paperwork burden that could result if a committee attempted to list specific instructional objectives by units within courses and/or by grade level.

Many instructional objectives can be found in instructional materials; such objectives are often clearly spelled out in teacher's editions or guides. This activity provides a vehicle for linking those objectives to identified program goals and student outcomes. It thus can also serve as a final check to determine the degree to which selected materials, or materials being considered for adoption, do in fact meet identified program goals and student outcomes.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handout 30; selected text materials.

Activity Objective: Participants should be able to link instructional objectives in published materials with identified program goals and student outcomes.

Suggested Steps:

1. Distribute Handout 30, pointing out the three levels of objectives, which were taken from recently published text materials.

2. Ask group members to examine text materials they have selected for adoption. Two options are available here. The first is to check to see the degree to which the instructional objectives in a text (or other instructional material) match the program goals and student outcomes. The second is to have group members actually list the instructional objectives from the text material under the appropriate student outcomes. The latter is a demanding and tedious task, but should result in an extensive listing of levels of objectives.

SAMPLE PROGRAM GOALS, STUDENT OUTCOMES, AND INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Program Goal:	Develops an understanding of the relationships between human beings and their social and physical environments in the past and present; develops an understanding of the origins, interrelationships, and effects of beliefs, values, and behavior patterns; and applies this knowledge to new situations and data.
Student Outcomes:	Acquires knowledge about decision-making processes. Explains the influence of geographic location, lifestyle, advertising, level of income, peer pressure, and governmental action on consumer decisions; describes and evaluates individual or group actions taken to protect the consumer.
Instructional Objectives:	Describes the four basic types of stores where consumers shop; distinguishes between a national brand, a private brand, and a no-name generic brand; explains what is meant by cost per serving and unit pricing; considers when quantity purchasing is a good idea; describes the four things a family should consider when buying an appliance; sets forth and explains some of the common misunderstandings about life insurance; defines the term *consumerism* and some of the typical frauds and abuses used on unknowing customers; and describes the legal protections and personal steps available to consumers who feel they have been wronged.

From Hodgetts, Richard M. and Terry L. Smart, *Essentials of Economics and Free Enterprise* (Menlo Park, Calif: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1982), Chapter 19. Used by permission.

Program Goal: Develops the competencies to acquire, organize, evaluate, and report information for purposes of solving problems and clarifying issues.

Student Outcomes: Organizes, analyzes, interprets, and synthesizes information obtained from various sources.

Classifies information.

Instructional Objectives:

First Grade:
--Classifies pictures into two categories.
--Classifies ideas/words into two categories.

Second Grade:
--Classifies items into three or more categories.
--Uses information which has been classified to answer questions.

Third Grade:
--Recognizes appropriate times for classifying.
--Draws conclusions from information which has been classified.

From Scope and Sequence of Primary Program Skills (Boulder, Colo: Graphic Learning Corporation, Inc., 1983), p. 17. Used by permission.

Program Goal:	Examines own beliefs and values, recognizes the relationship between own value structure and own behavior, and develops human relations skills and attitudes that enable one to act in the interest of self and others; is developing a positive self-concept.
Student Outcomes:	Develops the human relations skills and attitudes necessary to communicate with others. Demonstrates understanding of others' viewpoints and feelings.
Instructional Objectives:	Recognizes and appreciates the Spanish, French, Black, and Native American contributions to the development of the United States; recognizes and appreciates the contributions to American life made by people living in colonial times; and realizes that taking sides in the Revolution was a difficult choice for many who felt a conflict of loyalties.

Adapted from Ver Steeg. Clarence L., American Spirit (Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1982).

13. PLANNING FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

By James E. Davis*

Background Notes

Planning a sound program evaluation is vital to the success of a new curriculum plan. By being thoughtful about evaluation, planners demonstrate their belief that what they have planned is important. An effective program evaluation can answer the inevitable questions about program workability and provide data to improve the program.

A major function of program evaluation is to demonstrate to a variety of groups the effectiveness of the instructional program. An effective program of evaluation is many-faceted and displays the following characteristics:

1. It is based on clear and specific objectives.
2. It is continuous and cumulative, with records kept by administrators, teachers, and students.
3. It includes as many objective methods of evaluation as possible.
4. It includes subjective material (observations, case studies, diaries) that can be used to support objective results.
5. It is carried on daily through informal methods as well as at frequent intervals with more formal instruments.
6. It includes planning by teachers and administrators for using evaluation data fully and effectively.
7. It is wisely interpreted to students, parents, and others.
8. It does not unduly emphasize any one socioeconomic class.
9. It includes controlled teacher experimentation with new methods and devices.
10. It includes or involves students, parents, and administrators.

For evaluation to serve as a program improvement tool, it must provide some appraisal of the extent to which all aspects of the program are successful/unsuccessful. The process not only provides a blueprint of strengths and weaknesses for both the individual and the group, but also serves as a guide for future planning by all involved.

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*Some of the original ideas for this section were contributed by staff members of the Texas Education Agency.

Unfortunately, the word "evaluation" has a negative connotation for many educators. Thus, emphasizing the benefits of a sound evaluation is important. Evaluation should not be viewed as a mechanism for identifying who is not doing a good job, but as a tool for helping educators do an even better one.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 31 and 32; newsprint, marking pens, and masking tape.

Activity Objective: Participants should be able to (1) determine what program evaluation information should be collected, (2) decide how the information will be collected, (3) decide what will be done with collected information, and (4) set evaluation priorities.

Suggested Steps:

1. Review with the planning group the general characteristics of program evaluation, using the Background Notes if desired.
2. Distribute Handout 31, "Planning for Program Evaluation." Allow time for reading and discussion.
3. Distribute Handout 32, "Priorities for Program Evaluation." (You might also wish to post a newsprint copy of the matrix in order to collect ideas from the planning group.) Ask participants to fill in the handout as completely as they can. Here are some examples you might suggest:

Sources	What Info?	How?	What Done?
Students	Std. Tests	Adm. in Spring	Report to counselors and parents
Teachers	Survey Forms (specify criteria)	Adm. in Dec. and May	Report in writing to all
Building Adm.	Observations (specify criteria)	Written diaries	Report to planning committee
Parents	Survey (specify criteria)	Sample telephone survey	Summary report to committee and board

4. Announce that because all sources of information cannot be tapped, some priorities must be set. Ask the planning group to discuss what the evaluation priorities should be, keeping in mind that the program is new. Decide on the priorities and proceed with detailed planning. Planning should address: (1) instrumentation design; (2) research design, if needed; (3) timing; (4) data analysis procedures; (5) report preparation; and (6) reporting. (Detailed workshop activities for evaluation planning are provided in Evaluating Social Studies Programs: Focus on Law-Related Education, by G. Dale Greenawald and Douglas P. Superka. See section 16, p. 245).

5. Curriculum planners may feel that we have omitted an important aspect of evaluation--assessing student performance. We have indeed placed a lower priority on this aspect of program evaluation than on other aspects. We need to keep in mind that teachers will be using new materials. They will be dealing with new program ideas and the attendant problems of implementing a new program. In our judgment, evaluating aspects of how the program is working (e.g., usefulness of new materials, perceived administrative support) is more important for the first year or so than evaluating student performance. Until teachers become thoroughly familiar with the new curriculum plan, testing student performance is not likely to be a good measure of program workability.

Teachers may, however, want some help in designing a testing program for their students. While it is important that teachers use evaluation devices included with instructional materials, they may want additional testing aids. Appendix D presents a short paper entitled "Evaluation as an Instructional Tool." Following the paper is a checklist for evaluating informal classroom tests. If time permits, copy the paper and checklist. Take some time to design a work session that will include discussion of the paper, practice in preparing test items, and peer critiquing of test items.

PLANNING FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

Planning for effective program evaluation requires that (1) the goals of the program have been decided upon and (2) the means by which program goals will be attained have been selected. Once the rationale, goals, and student outcomes have been selected, course content has been chosen, and curriculum materials have been identified and selected, the purposes of program evaluation can be defined. What areas are of most concern? On what aspects of the program should data be collected? What will be done with the findings? To whom will the findings be presented?

This handout raises a series of questions that can help program planners decide on the most appropriate plan for evaluating a new social studies program. The handout suggests some concerns of teachers, school officials, and parents.

Teachers. Teachers may have several reasons for evaluating the program. One concern may be the appropriateness of the program goals, another the usefulness of the selected curriculum materials in helping students learn. Teachers may also want to compare the results of the new program with the results of similar programs in other parts of the state or nation. Questions that might be of interest are:

1. Are the objectives for (my) course of study appropriate?
2. Can my students attain the student outcomes?
3. How useful are the selected materials in helping students learn?
4. What training do I need in order to best use new materials?
5. What kinds of support do I need in order to effectively carry out the program?

School Officials. A comprehensive evaluation of the social studies program should reveal not only strengths by also areas for improvements. Questions that school officials might ask are:

1. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the social studies program?
2. Is the current social studies program achieving district-wide goals and objectives?

3. What type of changes and/or experimentations should be conducted to improve the instructional program?

4. What are the educational gains of our students as compared to those of students in other districts?

5. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the social studies teachers?

6. What inservice programs appear to be needed?

Parents. As long as school is seen as a means of advancement or as a way of securing a place in society and as long as parents have hopes and fears for their children, parents will be concerned about children's educational progress. A school evaluation program should, therefore, involve parents in the process as educational partners. Questions that parents might ask are:

1. How good is the local social studies program?

2. Are students gaining in skills and knowledge as a result of the program?

3. Are the different educational needs of all students being met by the program?

4. Are teachers trying different methods of teaching to meet the needs of the students?

5. Are the evaluation data used to help the students progress in the instructional program?

6. How can the evaluation data be used by parents to help teachers help students?

Many individuals and groups have a legitimate interest in how students are progressing and in what kind of job the schools are doing in meeting the educational needs of students. It is important for social studies educators to remember that the purpose of program evaluation is to provide feedback and guidance to the whole educational process at every level.

Handout 32

PRIORITIES FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

Sources of Information	What Information Will Be Obtained?	How Will Information Be Obtained	What Will Be Done With Collected Information?
Students			
Teachers			
Building Administrators			
Building Support Staff (e.g., Counselors)			
Central Office Staff (identify)			
School Board Members			
Parents			
Other (e.g., Outside Expert Observers)			

14. INSTALLING AND MAINTAINING THE PROGRAM

By Gerald Marker

Background Notes

If you have worked through the preceding activities in this handbook, you have something that 90 percent of the social studies departments in this country lack: a program that is based on a rationale reflected in its objectives and goals, implemented by carefully chosen instructional materials, and made accountable by a thoughtful evaluation plan. Unfortunately, your work is not done. Installing and maintaining the program will require equally careful planning.

Exactly how a school district goes about implementing a program depends to a large extent on the components of that program. Nevertheless, whatever its components, you can be sure that a program will not install itself. Research indicates that success in bringing about change is positively related to the extent of effort made on behalf of that change. If the program is going to survive, it must receive support from the community. Involving community representatives from the beginning will make it much easier to build support among parents, civic groups, the media, and the public in general. You will need to use every possible avenue to inform people about what you are doing and why. School newsletters, radio talk shows, articles in the local newspaper, speeches to civic organizations and parent-teacher groups, school open houses--use them all.

If community representatives are brought in at the implementation stage, there is one little "hooker" to watch out for. One of the most common reasons for failure in implementing a new program is incompatibility with local values. In the process of revising a curriculum and designing an evaluation system, it is easy to forget that members of the community, not educators, are the clients. If planners lose sight of that fact, they may discover that the new program "scratches where the public doesn't itch." For example, heavy emphasis may have been placed on values clarification when most citizens are more concerned that students learn to read maps and write grammatically correct sentences. Although it is true that giving the public what it wants may have the effect of "provincializing" the schools, that is a risk we must take, for it is also true that "he who pays the piper calls the tune"--which is what accountability is all about.

The fact that your social studies curriculum was designed by the very people who will implement it is a big plus in terms of installing the program. Educators are fond of talking about how teachers should take into account the individual differences of students; that is not bad advice to curriculum planners as they put a new program into operation. Not all teachers accept change at the same rate, and they need to be given opportunities to express their concerns and doubts. This is more likely to happen if the issue can be depersonalized--for example, a question to a teacher could be phrased as "What are some of the things that might go wrong with this new program, and what can we do to avoid them?" rather than as "What makes you most uncomfortable about this new program?" This activity is designed to help classroom teachers understand and deal with some of the problems that may arise in installing the program.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Sufficient copies of Handouts 33-36; ten 3" x 5" cards for each participant.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) express their concerns and doubts about the new program, (2) identify problems which may arise with the program, (3) outline some actions to help install the program.

Suggested Steps:

1. Explain to the participants that you want them to help project some of the future problems and payoffs of the new curriculum plan. To prepare for this task, ask the participants to read Handout 33, "Avoiding Pitfalls in Introducing New Materials in Schools."

2. Give each person ten 3" x 5" cards, asking them to put one statement on each card. Each statement should begin in one of two ways: (a) "A problem that is likely to be caused by this program is . . ." or (b) "One of the positive payoffs that we can anticipate from this

program is . . ." Participants should not put their names on the cards. Allow ten minutes for this step. (Note: The group leader should also fill out ten cards in order to make sure that all ideas that need to be discussed are on cards--especially problems or payoffs that others are likely to think of but might be reluctant to write down.)

3. Collect the cards and put them in the center of the table. If the participants are to work in small groups during the rest of the activity, each small group should have its own stack of cards.

4. Distribute Handout 34, "Example of Force-Field Analysis." Explain that force-field analysis is a technique used to analyze a current situation in light of a goal for change. A situation exists as it does because both positive and negative forces operate to maintain the status quo. Force-field analysis enables those seeking change to examine the forces that support the goal and the forces that may prevent the goal from being reached.

In the example, the goal has been stated with a time deadline and a specification of the number of people to be involved in the change. Both supporting and restraining forces have been identified within the individual who is responsible for helping make the change happen (self), significant others, and relevant institutions. Note that these are only samples of forces; a thorough analysis would reveal numerous additional restraining and supporting forces.

5. Distribute Handout 35, "Force-Field Analysis Worksheet." Explain that the group's task will be to (a) state an installation goal, (b) identify the supporting and restraining forces, (c) evaluate the strength or importance of each force, and (d) identify possible strategies for dealing with one or more restraining forces. (Note: The central idea in achieving effective change is to remove the restraining forces rather than to increase the strength of the supporting forces.)

6. As the first step in the analysis, the participants should state an installation goal. They should then take the cards one at a time and list them on their worksheets as "supporting forces" or "restraining forces," indicating whether they belong under "self," "significant others," or "institution."

7. Caution the participants not to try to compile an extensive list of supporting forces. Rather, each group should identify at least one restraining force and develop an action plan to reduce the strength of that force.

8. Distribute Handout 36, "Action Plan Worksheet." Explain that the first step is to try to reduce the strength of or remove a restraining force. Ask each group of participants to choose a restraining force and then identify action ideas for dealing with the force. They should work all the way through one selected action idea, indicating each step in the action plan; who will do it; where, when, and how; and what special resources will be needed.

9. If participants were working in small groups, ask each group to share its action plan worksheet with the whole group. Some groups may have identified the same restraining forces but developed quite different action plans. Discussion of action alternatives will be very useful. If time allows, you may ask each small group to choose a second restraining force and develop a second action plan.

AVOIDING PITFALLS IN INTRODUCING NEW MATERIALS IN SCHOOLS

Teacher Training

One of the most misunderstood, mistreated, and mismanaged activities in K-12 education is inservice teacher training in the use of new materials. Too often this process is conducted like preservice education--an expert is called in to lecture about proper use of the materials, but teachers are given no opportunity to actually use them. Occasionally, workshop sessions permit teachers to try out the new materials, but provision is seldom made for follow-through sessions during which teachers can share the problems they have encountered when using the materials in the classroom and get help in solving those problems.

Another major fault of most inservice training in the use of new materials is that there is too much focus on "organizing concepts" or "general strategies" or "evaluation design" and not enough focus on the practical and physical use of the materials--what the components are, when and how each is used, which lessons must be taught and which are supplementary, and so forth. A happy combination of theory and practicality is needed in any workshop designed to introduce teachers to new materials.

The following list of tips should be helpful in planning an inservice workshop:

1. Identify the purpose of the workshop for the participants. They should know why the workshop is necessary and why it is necessary for them to attend.

2. Identify who should attend. This will depend on many things, from the content of the session to the size of the available facilities. If you are introducing a new elementary curriculum, you need to decide whether to conduct one workshop for all elementary teachers, separate workshops for teachers at each grade level, or workshops for every school.

Is it necessary to involve administrators? What about parents and students? There are many possible combinations of participants. Look carefully at all of them before you make a final decision about who should be involved.

3. *Decide how many sessions will be needed and how much time each session will require*. Introducing new materials to a group of teachers in a one-hour session is possible. Giving teachers an opportunity to work with the materials will take longer; if you want teachers to try out the materials in their classrooms and share their findings afterward, you will need a second session. Carefully plan what will be needed to give teachers the maximum help in installing the new materials.

4. *Choose facilities with participants' needs in mind*. The time of day, the day of the week, the setting--all are important to the success of inservice workshops. People cannot work in small groups in a room in which the chairs are bolted to the floor, auditorium-style. Adults cannot sit comfortably for two hours in a room designed for third-grade students. Both after-school workshops and Saturday-morning workshops have disadvantages--what time would be best for your teachers? Sometimes more can be accomplished in the half-hour before school starts, when teachers are fresh, than in three hours after school, when they are tired.

5. *Choose your presenters or consultants with care*. This is a crucial consideration. Consultants will do a better job if they are tuned in to your objectives. Publishers will frequently provide free consulting services for the installation of new programs purchased by a school or district. However, you're not interested in having the consultant sell the program all over again. You've already bought the materials; you're now interested in learning how to use them. Make this point clear whether the consultant is a publisher's representative, an outside expert, or a teacher from your own district who has used the materials.

6. *Evaluate your session*. Evaluation can be conducted at either or both of two levels: You can evaluate the workshop itself or you can evaluate teacher behavior following the workshop. Evaluation of a workshop frequently will yield "afterglow" reactions--feelings about how the session went. Evaluation of teacher behavior will give you information both about the effectiveness of the session and about whether the teachers did, in fact, learn to use the materials. Workshop evaluations are worthwhile only to the extent that they are used to plan future sessions and help participants with problems.

7. Plan special sessions for new teachers and transferred teachers. The first year you install your program, all the teachers using the materials will be trained to use them. But if a teacher resigns after one semester, the new teacher must be taught to use the materials. Occasionally a teacher will switch grade levels within a school, or a teacher may transfer from one school to another. Although you won't want to hold a complete inservice session for just one person, you should design an efficient way to train new teachers as they begin to use the program. You might decide to keep all the handouts from your initial training sessions or to videotape the sessions and let new teachers view the tapes. But plan ahead--you will need to make some provision for training new teachers before they arrive.

8. Have an inservice follow-through session after the materials have been in use for one year. A summer inservice session devoted strictly to solving problems that have arisen in using the new materials will strengthen your program immeasurably.

Maintaining the Program

Curriculum programs generally survive so long as they have strong support from key people. But no sooner has a program been installed, than it begins to "wear out" in subtle ways. Perhaps the people who designed the program have left or retired. Perhaps data have been reported to the community in a way that makes the program seem complicated or full of jargon, with the result that parents begin to suspect that something is being held back or covered up. If no educational use is made of the evaluative data, teachers and administrators may begin to feel that the evaluation exercise is a lot of trouble for nothing, or they may decide that the evaluation procedures are not measuring what people believe to be important. Whatever the cause, you cannot afford to let support for the new program slip away. After all, you have invested a lot of time, energy, and money in the effort to install it.

Internal Maintenance Activities. One of the most important things you can do to maintain support for a new program is to keep people talking about it, both within the school district and in the community at large. An information-sharing practice can be as simple as asking each teacher to put a copy of every curriculum item that is duplicated (except tests) into a box by the ditto machine. Establish a rule that anyone can look through the box, but no item developed or used by one teacher can be duplicated by another teacher without the developer's permission. This practice encourages communication.

Intradepartmental sharing can be encouraged by occasionally devoting part of a department meeting to asking each member to complete this sentence: "My best creative effort this year (semester) was . . ." This exercise gives people a chance to talk about the positive things they are doing, helps them keep track of what others in the department are doing, and provides a welcome relief from the focus on problems which so often characterizes department meetings.

The end of the first year, by which time you should have the first batch of evaluative data to work with, is an appropriate time to sit back and reflect about what you have learned. An ideal way to do this is to schedule a one- or two-day retreat, probably during the first week or two after school is dismissed in June. (If you wait until just before school starts in the fall, teachers may be fresher, but there will be no time to make whatever adjustments are suggested by the evaluative data.) In large districts, a representative committee can be charged with interpreting the evaluative data. If the district employs a social studies supervisor or an evaluator, try to involve that person in the retreat. Even if "insiders" play such specialized roles in your district, it may be useful to bring in an outside consultant. An outsider may be able to see significant findings in the data that might be overlooked by people who have worked closely with the program. One way to bring in an "expert" without spending any money is to borrow one from a nearby school district. In return, someone from your staff will agree to go over and serve as that district's "expert."

The primary role of the retreat leader will be to limit the discussion to the agenda. People who are not trained in evaluation may quickly become bored with data interpretation, especially if the data do not confirm their own impressions. Here is a suggested agenda for the retreat:

1. Introduction
    a. Remind participants what the district wanted the new program to accomplish.
    b. Review program goals.
    c. Review data collection procedures.
2. Interpreting the evaluative data
    a. Review the data in terms of the program goals.
    b. Review the data in terms of grade levels and subject clusters.
    c. Compare the data to state and national norms.
    d. Analyze trends, comparing the results of the new program to the results of previous programs in the district.
3. Reporting the data
    a. Decide what data should be reported to the community and how it should be reported.
    b. Decide what should be reported, how, to other professionals, including the school board and the state department of education.
4. Using the evaluative data to modify the curriculum
    a. Identify problem areas and program goals and objectives that are not being attained.
    b. Identify goals and objectives that are no longer appropriate.
    c. Decide what objectives, if any, need to be added to the program.
5. General review
    a. Assess the extent of cooperation in the collection of evaluative data.
    b. Establish who is responsible for doing what.
    c. Make plans and assign responsibility for briefing new people in the fall.
    d. Deal with other general problems.

Community Maintenance Activities. Community interest can be stimulated by setting up a speaker's bureau of teachers prepared to address community groups about the new program. Local civic and service clubs are likely to be eager to accept the offer of a speaker. However, before the first teacher heads off to speak, the coordinating group should agree on the main points each speaker will cover and how they will be presented.

Another way of keeping the community informed about your new program is to periodically hold press conferences and issue press releases. Here are some tips for effectively reporting your program through the press:

1. Do involve teachers and parents in writing the releases. This will help reduce the amount of educational jargon.

2. Don't single out individual teachers for comparison.

3. Do compare local results with state and national norms whenever possible.

4. Do appoint someone to record the questions asked and comments made during press conferences; this kind of feedback may provide clues for effectively revising the program or your reporting techniques.

5. Do give representatives of the press a written summary of the material you plan to cover a few hours before every press conference.

6. Don't be alarmed if a reporter presents information out of context or plays up insignificant findings. Do let the reporter know that you are concerned about describing the program accurately and that you are eager to work toward building a long-term relationship of trust.

Handout 34 1 of 1

EXAMPLE OF FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS

Your stated goal: By October 15, 19 , 40 elementary teachers in two district schools will begin using the new K-6 social studies guide in their program

Supporting Forces → →		← ← Restraining Forces
I am confident of good planning ~ ~ etc.	Self	I don't know how to conduct good inservice programs. ~ ~ etc.
We have school board support ~ ~ etc.	Significant Others	We don't know how the two elementary principals feel about the program ~ ~ etc.
State accountability mandates support this approach. ~ ~ etc.	Institution	Do we have funding needed to purchase materials? ~ ~ etc.

FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS WORKSHEET

Your stated goal: ____

____

____

____

Supporting Forces → → ← ← Restraining Forces

Self

Significant Others

Institution

ACTION PLAN WORKSHEET

Force Selected to Work on:

Goal:

Action Idea(s) Chosen:

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What Will Be Done?	Who Will Do It?	Where and When?	How?	Special Resources Needed

15. MODIFYING THE PROGRAM

By James E. Davis

Background Notes

Like any other complicated entity, a new social studies program will encounter problems from time to time. As the society in which a school district operates changes, so will the pressures on its social studies program. The community, through the election of a new school board, may decide that schools ought to be emphasizing other subject areas. The special interests of a new superintendent or director of curriculum may cause an upheaval in a smoothly operating program and reporting system. Whatever their cause, problems are most easily dealt with when they are identified early. Regular use of such techniques as force-field analysis or brainstorming can help identify solutions to potential problems.

Keeping the planning group intact is vital. Regular meetings are not necessary. In fact, social activities go a long way toward maintaining the cohesiveness of the planning group. However, if there is a core group that can be called on from time to time, program modification will be easier.

Even if no major problems arise, a social studies program should be thoroughly examined every few years to see if it still fits community needs. You may cringe at the thought of working through the activities in this guide again, but the next time around you will have the benefit of experience and accumulated data on how the program is working. Remember that an effective curriculum program requires both day-to-day maintenance and occasional major overhauls. If you take proper care of your program, it will give you long and dependable service.

Conducting the Activity

Materials Needed: Newsprint, marking pens, masking tape.

Activity Objective: Participants will be able to identify possible ideas for assuring that steps are taken to plan for program modification.

Suggested Steps:

1. Use a brainstorming technique to generate a number of ideas related to one or more of the following questions:

--How can we assure that the social studies curriculum planning committee can be kept intact for the next three years?

--What are some ways that the planning committee can be kept informed of feedback on the effectiveness of the new social studies program?

--How can members of the program planning committee become a sensing network regarding the effectiveness of the social studies program?

Other possible questions could also be used for this activity.

2. When the brainstorming is complete, ask the group to suggest some priority activities. These activities may have to be approved by district-level administration. In any case, assure that something will be done to establish a modification plan.

16. RESOURCES

By James E. Davis

The following resources related to curriculum planning are organized according to the facet of the planning process to which they apply. The first section lists three resources that shed light on the six problems for social studies, while resources in the second section describe additional curriculum planning models. Following sections list resources related to developing a rationale, selecting goals and objectives, choosing content, identifying and selecting materials, planning for evaluation, and installing and maintaining the program.

All the resources listed here have been entered into the ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) system. Each is identified by a six-digit number and two letters: "EJ" for journal articles, "ED" for other documents. Abstracts of and descriptive information about all ERIC documents are published in two cumulative indexes: Resources in Education (RIE) for ED listings and the Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE) for EJ listings. This information is also accessible through three computer searching systems: DIALOG, ORBIT, and BRS.

Most, but not all, ERIC documents are available for viewing in microfiche (MF) at libraries that subscribe to the ERIC collection. Microfiche copies of these documents can also be purchased from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210. Paper copies of some documents can also be purchased from EDRS. Complete price information is provided in this bibliography. When ordering from EDRS, be sure to list the ED number, specify either MF or PC, and enclose a check or money order. Add postage to the MF or PC price at the rate of $1.55 for up to 75 microfiche or paper copy pages. Add $0.39 for each additional 75 microfiche or pages. One microfiche contains up to 96 document pages.

Journal articles are not available in microfiche. If your local library does not have the relevant issue of a journal, you may be able to obtain a reprint from University Microfilms International (UMI), 300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106. All orders must be accompanied by payment in full, plus postage, and must include the following information: title of the periodical, title of article, name of author, date of issue, volume number, issue number, and page number. Contact UMI for current price information.

Many of the documents in the ERIC system are also available in paper copy from their original publisher. Publisher ordering information is also provided with each entry.

Six Problems for Social Studies in the 1980s

Hertzberg, Hazel Whitman, Social Studies Reform: 1880-1980 (Social Science Education Consortium, 1981). 201 pp. ED 211 429. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$16.16. PC also available from SSEC Publications, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302: $12.95.

The purposes, methodologies, and curricula of the social studies over the past 100 years are examined in this paper, which begins with a discussion of the meanings, definitions, and beginnings of social studies. The impact of various commissions and committees is discussed, as are the effects of World War II. The era of the "new social studies" receives extensive coverage.

Project SPAN Staff and Consultants, The Future of Social Studies: A Report and Summary of Project SPAN (Social Science Education Consortium, 1982). 95 pp. ED 218 200. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$7.40. PC also available from SSEC Publications, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302: $7.95.

This document opens with a summary of the work of Project SPAN and then presents the staff and consultants' outline of six problems facing social studies in the 1980s. Desired states to which the field might aspire are suggested, and recommendations for achieving those desired states are directed to teachers, supervisors, principals, administrators, curriculum developers, school boards, publishers, teacher educators, researchers, and funding agencies.

Senesh, Lawrence, "The New Social Science Movement of the 1960s," Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 3, no. 5 (September-October 1981), pp. 63-73. EJ 255 860. Reprint available from UMI.

The forces which stimulated the social science curriculum reform movement to both its accomplishments and its decline are observed and reported in this article.

Models for Social Studies Curriculum Planning

Graves, Norman J., Curriculum Planning in Geography (Heineman Educational Books, 1979). 180 pp. ED 177 067. Not available from EDRS. Available from Heineman Educational Books, 4 Front St., Exeter, NH 03833: $10.50.

This author holds that classroom teachers must understand curriculum theory and geography subject matter content to develop geography curricula. Teachers will also improve their abilities to construct curricula if they refer to curriculum models. Process models (which describe teaching/learning activities) and objectives models (which identify desired cognitive and/or affective outcomes) are cited as particularly useful in developing geography curricula. Other factors to consider in developing curricula are discussed, and sample curricula for junior and senior high school are presented.

Handbook of Ideas for Curriculum Improvement (Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, 1981). 41 pp. ED 212 610. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This booklet presents a model for changing elementary and secondary school curricula. The first section offers forms and resources for analyzing change at the local level. The second section offers step-by-step guidelines for curriculum development, and the third section presents basic principles for involving faculty members in change procedures through staff development and inservice experiences.

Muessig, Raymond H., ed., *Social Studies Curriculum Improvement*, Bulletin 55 (National Council for the Social Studies, 1978). 126 pp. ED 155 104. EDRS price: MF-$0.97. PC available only from NCSS, 3501 Newark St., NW, Washington, DC 20036: $5.50.

This bulletin examines the role and process of social studies curriculum improvement in a constantly changing society. Intended for use by classroom teachers, principals, supervisors, curriculum directors, and superintendents involved in curriculum work, the bulletin offers ideas, examples, and resources related to curriculum improvement efforts.

Program Improvement for Social Studies Education in Wisconsin (Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, 1977). 70 pp. ED 137 174. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$5.65.

This booklet is designed to help educators review, develop, and improve fundamental components of K-12 social studies programs. Suggestions for ways in which educators can define the purpose of their programs and decide how to balance skills and subject matter components are followed by a historical treatment of social studies curriculum development. Ideal programs are discussed and analyzed, and five models for scope and sequences are presented. The final sections explain how to implement and evaluate new programs.

Szabo, Lester John, *Supervision Manual: Social Studies Program* (New York State Education Department, 1982). 45 pp. ED 214 381. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This manual is designed to help school personnel implement a social studies program in grades K-12. Forming a local social studies committee is dealt with, as is local conduct of a needs assessment. Development of goals and objectives, selection of instructional materials, inservice, implementation, and evaluation are among the other topics covered.

Use of Social Studies Concepts in Curriculum Development, rev. ed. (Pennsylvania State Department of Education, 1979). 41 pp. ED 190 474. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This guide discusses the steps to be followed in elementary and secondary curriculum planning and development, outlines the cognitive aspects of the social science disciplines, and presents two sample interdisciplinary units.

Deciding on a Rationale

Bauer, Nancy W., "Enriching Reality in Social Studies Education," Theory Into Practice 20, no. 3 (Summer 1981), pp. 152-157. EJ 251 687. Reprint available from UMI.

Among the ways the author cites to enrich social studies are student action methods that focus on citizenship participation, application of real-life situations, and global education. The author contends that social studies should attempt an understanding of real people and bring a sense of reality to the classroom.

Decision-Making: The Heart of Social Studies Instruction Revisited, Occasional Paper 1 (Social Studies Development Center, 1978). 45 pp. ED 153 903. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This collection of conference papers reviews the role of decision making in social studies education since 1960. Contributors include Shirley Engle, C. Benjamin Cox, Wilma S. Longstreet, and Jan L. Tucker.

Egan, Kieran, "Individual Development and the Social Studies Curriculum," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, 1979). 46 pp. ED 183 429. MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This paper suggests that social studies educators will make the pursuit of social knowledge more interesting if they tailor curriculum content to students' developing cognition. A three-stage model of ideal cognitive development during the school years is described. The three stages are mythic, romantic, and philosophic.

Egan, Kieran, "John Dewey and the Social Studies Curriculum," Theory and Research in Social Education 8, no. 2 (Summer 1980), pp. 37-55. EJ 231 074. Reprint available from UMI.

The author examines the basis of social studies curricula and points out why these principles have generated curricula which are not interesting or relevant to students today. Principles, based on the writings of John Dewey, are that teaching and learning should begin with the child's experience, formal education is distinct from natural education, and socializing is distinct from educating.

Engle, Shirley H. "Defining the Social Studies: What Is the Problem?," paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies (New Orleans, 1980). 13 pp. ED 204 200. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$2.15.

This paper offers three main reasons to explain why social studies lends itself so reluctantly to definition: (1) the high degree of ambiguity regarding social studies goals within the social studies profession and the public, (2) the lack of clarity in the relationship between social studies and the social sciences, and (3) the failure to make necessary distinctions between the role of scholarship and the role of teaching. The author concludes that social studies educators will contribute to a clear and meaningful definition of social studies if they concentrate on identifying major objectives and on describing precisely the kinds of teaching methods that are consistent with those goals.

Fair, Jean, "A Rationale for Social Studies Education in Michigan," paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies (Detroit, 1981). 16 pp. ED 207 919. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$2.15.

The central purpose of social studies education, as viewed by this author, is the development of citizenship. Four essential elements of social studies education--knowledge, values, skills, and social participation--are described, and program characteristics which must be implemented if these four elements are to be translated into actual learning opportunities are suggested.

Farmer, Rodney B., "Social Studies in Name and in Practice," Education 101, no. 4 (Summer 1981), pp. 345-348. EJ 251 348. Reprint available from UMI.

The author argues that social studies is an academic discipline in its own right. Only through an interdisciplinary social science approach can students understand societies and social problems in their true complexity. The article suggests creation of a true secondary social studies will require reform in secondary school curriculum and social studies teacher education.

Haas, John D., "Social Studies: Where Have We Been? Where Are We Going?," Social Studies 70, no. 4 (July-August 1979), pp. 147-154. EJ 207 123. Reprint available from UMI.

Haas traces approaches of social studies from 1916 to the present, contending that the "citizenship transmission" position which supports the status quo has been dominant in spite of the reform rationales stressing the process of thinking reflectively or the intellectual aspects of history and the social sciences.

Haas, John D., "The Uses of Rationales, Goals, and Objectives in the Social Studies," Social Studies 72, no. 6 (November-December 1981), pp. 249-253. EJ 255 670. Reprint available from UMI.

This article discusses the lack of consensus among social studies educators as to the definition of and rationale for the field. The relationships between social studies rationales and goals and between goals and objectives are examined.

Spillane, Robert R., and Paul Regnier, "Revitalizing the Academic Curriculum: The Case of the Social Studies," Phi Delta Kappan 62, no. 10 (June 1981), pp. 731-732. EJ 245 765. Reprint available from UMI.

The authors argue for the importance of emphasizing the study of history in the social studies curriculum. Also discussed are principles for revitalizing the social studies program.

Stanley, William B., "What Social Education Content Is Most Important?," Educational Leadership 39, no. 8 (May 1982), pp. 588-592. EJ 263 072. Reprint available from UMI.

Stanley discusses the content and problems of contemporary social studies curricula and recommends five guidelines for future social education. These include teaching democratic culture, developing students' sense of community, studying the sociology of knowledge, analyzing social problems, and emphasizing global and future orientations. Twelve steps for implementing the guidelines are suggested.

Van Manen, Max, "What Curriculum Is Best Suited to Develop a Critical Minded Public?," paper presented at Canadian Society for the Study of Education meeting (Fredericton, New Brunswick, 1977). 34 pp. ED 155 118. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This paper argues that the social studies curriculum should extend the concept of critical thinking to social criticism, thereby fostering a society that is characterized by community, freedom, and equality. Seven pedagogical elements of a public school curriculum aimed at critical analysis of the human condition in society are suggested.

Selecting Goals and Objectives

Barth, James L., and Samuel S. Shermis, "Social Studies Goals: The Historical Perspective," Journal of Research and Development in Education 13, no. 2 (Winter 1980), pp. 1-11. EJ 233 062. Reprint available from UMI.

The historical development of social studies is traced to provide a perspective for the next two decades. Citizenship education is advocated, but the practice of encultration in the 19th-century tradition is regarded as intolerable. The need for better and more widely accepted theoretical insights is pointed out.

Citizenship and Social Studies Objectives: 1981-82 Assessment (Education Commission of the States, National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1980). 38 pp. ED 186 330. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This publication outlines goals that a consensus of educators and laypersons consider important for K-12 citizenship and social studies education. The goals were used in the 1981-1982 assessment of achievements of 9-, 13-, and 17-year-olds. Five major citizenship/social studies objectives are defined and broken down.

Framework for the Social Studies: Kindergarten-Grade 12 (Texas Education Agency, 1980). 46 pp. ED 184 955. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This document outlines the social studies program for grades K-12 in Texas. Along with an overview of the program and a discussion of concerns related to special topics and handicapped or gifted students, the guide presents goals and subgoals for social studies programs and describes course content for grades K-12.

Key Competencies: Social Studies, Elementary School (Philadelphia School District, 1980). 26 pp. ED 193 109. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This booklet outlines specific competencies for social studies education in grades 1-6. The focus of social studies education is seen to be the transmission of knowledge and inculcation of skills and attitudes essential for good citizenship in an interdependent world. Competencies and behavioral objectives are listed by grade level for five areas seen as important to good citizenship: self-realization, governing, producing and consuming, utilizing environments, and critical thinking and decision making.

Key Competencies: Social Studies, Secondary Schools (Philadelphia School District, 1980). 58 pp. ED 193 110. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$5.65.

Specific competencies are outlined for social studies education in grades 7-12. The same five areas listed in the citation above serve as the basis for competencies and objectives given for eight courses in the secondary social studies program: geography, state and U.S. history and government, world history, U.S. history, political science, economics, sociology, and city government.

Kloes, Donald, "What Needs or Goals I See in My Students That May Be Met in Social Studies Classes," Social Studies Review 21, no. 3 (Spring 1982), pp. 23-25. EJ 265 106. Reprint available from UMI.

The author outlines the goals of a secondary social studies course for six categories: basic skills, citizenship, leisure time and stimulation, work and employment, knowledge and creativity, and understanding self and working with others.

Kroen, William C., Jr., Developing Skills in the Social Studies (1980). 9 pp. ED 195 519. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$2.15.

This paper advocates the use of teaching strategies that develop basic skills for greater learning and academic progress within the social studies. Such a teaching strategy includes demonstration, practice, and evaluation components. Clear presentation of skills, an opportunity to practice them, and accurate appraisal of their performance is necessary for maximum skill development.

Marker, Gerald W., "Goals for Political and Social Participation," Journal of Research and Development in Education 13, no. 3 (Winter 1980), pp. 72-81. EJ 233 068. Reprint available from UMI.

Political and social participation of students is discussed as a major goal for the social studies. The author suggests that the active participation of students in school decision making and policy formation will raise their political and social awareness.

Martorella, Peter H., "Social Studies Goals in the Middle Grades," Journal of Research and Development in Education 13, no. 2 (Winter 1980), pp. 47-59. EJ 233 066. Reprint available from UMI.

Developmental characteristics of students in middle schools (grades 5-8) are detailed, and a social studies curriculum tailored to their particular needs is outlined.

McCue, Lydia L. and Helen E. Jones, eds., Social Studies for Children, K-6 (West Virginia State Department of Education, 1980). 94 pp. ED 204 255. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$7.40.

This publication outlines a framework for the social studies curriculum, K-6, and provides a continuum for the knowledge and skills of the social sciences. The following information is provided for each grade level: concept, competency, and sample learner outcomes.

Remy, Richard C., Handbook of Basic Citizenship Competencies (Ohio State University and Social Science Education Consortium, 1979). 125 pp. ED 177 037. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$9.15.

One product of a project to assist educators, parents, and community leaders as they develop and implement citizenship education programs, this document identifies and describes seven basic citizenship competencies--acquiring and using information, assessing involvement, making decisions, making judgments, communicating, cooperating, and promoting interests. Activities for developing these competencies and criteria for evaluating citizenship-related learning experiences are also presented.

"Revision of the NCSS Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines," Social Education 43, no. 4 (April 1979), pp. 261-273. EJ 198 691. Reprint available from UMI.

This article presents objectives of an ideal social studies program in four areas--knowledge, abilities, valuing, and social participation. Also offered are guidelines to help teachers set standards for social studies programs.

Shaver, James P., "Toward the Twenty-First Century: Social Studies Goals for Decision-Making and Research Skills," Journal of Research and Development in Education 13, no. 2 (Winter 1980), pp. 36-46. EJ 233 065. Reprint available from UMI.

The role of decision making and its import for generating social change are examined. Decision making is considered from psychological, semantic, and scientific viewpoints, and suggestions for constructive change in social studies curricula are offered.

Smith, Theodore R., ed., History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve (California State Department of Education, 1981). 62 pp. ED 213 626. EDRS price: MF-$0.97. PC available only from California State Department of Education, Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95802: $2.25.

This revised history/social science framework for grades K-12 is designed to be used as the basis for curriculum development at the local level. According to the framework, the central purpose of history/social science education is to prepare students to be humane, rational, and understanding and to be participating citizens in a diverse society and an increasingly interdependent world. Goals related to knowledge, skills, values, and social participation are given, along with suggested content or areas of study for each grade level and definitions of basic concepts of the social science disciplines.

Social Studies Subgoals and Suggested Essential Student Objectives (Texas Education Agency, 1980). 30 pp. ED 184 947. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This document outlines specific goals of a social studies program consistent with the generalized goals of education of the State Board of Education in Texas. General goals are categorized according to five areas. Three subgoals for the social studies are broken down into sections listing skills relevant to the subgoal.

Stahl, Robert J., "Achieving Values and Content Objectives Simultaneously Within Subject Matter-Oriented Social Studies Classrooms," Social Education 45, no. 7 (November-December 1981), pp. 580-585. EJ 254 374. Reprint available from UMI.

This article offers suggestions to help content-centered social studies teachers on the secondary level achieve their objectives in the area of values. The approach is based on development of values-related situations and problems from within the subject-matter content.

"Statement on the Essentials of the Social Studies," Social Education 45, no. 3 (March 1981), pp. 162-164. EJ 241 346. Reprint available from UMI.

This statement summarizes various National Council for the Social Studies statements and positions concerning the goal of citizenship participation, knowledge, democratic beliefs, thinking skills, participation skills, and civic action.

Washington, Herman A. and Rose Marie Davis, Learning Activities for Social Studies in Oregon Schools (Oregon State Department of Education, 1981). 178 pp. ED 204 237. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$14.40.

This guide suggests social studies learning activities for developing specific concepts in grades K-12. For each concept, the following information is provided: state, district, and program goals, unit goal, skills to be developed, and learning activities.

Washington, Herman A. and Rose Marie Davis, Social Studies in Oregon Schools: A Guide to Developing a Comprehensive Program for Grades Kindergarten Through Twelve (Oregon State Department of Education, 1981). 38 pp. ED 204 236. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This guide is designed to help teachers and program specialists design a comprehensive K-12 social studies program using goal-based concepts and generalizations. The guide outlines concepts, generalizations, goals, and skills for each grade level. Other useful aids provided are a sample purpose statement for social studies, program goals addressing both the cognitive and affective domains, and definitions of skills essential to the social studies.

Choosing Content

Anthony, Robert B., "Toward a Balanced Secondary Social Studies Curriculum," Clearing House 54, no. 5 (January 1981), pp. 210-211. EJ 239 755. Reprint available from UMI.

The author suggests that one can gain an overview of the coverage and balance of a multi-course social studies curriculum by placing the different courses, by total semesters taught, in these three pairs of course categories: American Studies/World Studies; U.S. History/Non-U.S. History; and History/Contemporary Studies.

Bailey, Curtis and others, Handbook for Social Studies Educators (Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1981). 131 pp. ED 204 246. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$10.90.

This handbook was developed to aid secondary teachers interested in improving social studies education. Included in the guide are (1) a discussion of teaching methods, (2) course descriptions, goals and objectives, and activities for seven secondary courses, and (3) scope-and-sequence curriculum models to serve as reference points in examining the social studies program.

Becker, James M. and Lee Anderson, "Global Perspectives in the Social Studies," Journal of Research and Development in Education 13, no. 2 (Winter 1980), pp. 82-92. EJ 233 069. Reprint available from UMI.

Eight kinds of curricular changes designed to make schools more effective agents of citizen education in a global age are discussed. Materials designed to globalize the content of education are listed, and four basic elements of a curriculum grounded in a global perspective are briefly described.

Collins, H. Thomas and Sally Banks Zakariza, Getting Started in Global Education: A Primer for Principals and Teachers (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1982). 28 pp. ED 215 939. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90. PC also available from NAESP, 1801 N. Moore St., Arlington, VA 22209: $4.00.

The articles and background information in this publication will be useful to K-12 principals and teachers interested in starting a global education program. Goals and objectives in global education are discussed and outlined, and the need for a global perspective on citizenship is presented. What research says about where to teach global education is examined. One article answers some commonly asked questions about global education.

Community as a Resource, The: Program Planning for the Elementary School (Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, 1976). 62 pp. ED 139 693. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$5.65.

The handbook provides information, ideas, and strategies for developing and utilizing community resources in elementary and secondary school programs. The first section of the document describes six school/community programs employing such innovations as parental selection of community involvement topics, interaction with retired senior citizens, working on class projects to alter local problems, student-authored community studies, and sponsorship of an international exhibition. The second section describes program planning for school-community involvement, and the third section describes 21 representative school-community learning experiences for children.

Franks, Betty Barclay and Mary Kay Howard, "Infusing a Futures Perspective into Standard Social Studies Courses," *Social Education* 43, no. 1 (January 1979), pp. 24-27. EJ 193 301. Reprint available from UMI.

The authors discuss ways in which social studies teachers can introduce a futures perspective into traditional courses. They also explain how to identify futures concepts in a world history course, introduce a futures unit in U.S. history, use community resources in a government course, focus on approaches to futures issues in economics, and apply basic skills to futures topics in geography.

Grambs, Jean Dresden, ed., *Teaching About Women in the Social Studies: Concepts, Methods, and Materials*, Bulletin 48 (National Council for the Social Studies, 1976). 125 pp. ED 120 074. EDRS price: MF-$0.97. PC available only from NCSS, 3501 Newark St., NW, Washington, DC 20036: $5.95.

The book is for social studies teachers who want to avoid sexism in their teaching and make women a viable part of the study of history and modern issues. Chapter authors present basic concepts to help teachers and school systems analyze and revise their current social studies offerings and build new units and courses. Throughout the book, the stress is on practical aids for the teacher.

Hartoonian, H. Michael, *Beyond the Widening Horizon: Rethinking Social Education* (1982). 32 pp. ED 216 955. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This paper discusses how social studies can best prepare enlightened citizens for the 21st century by centering the curriculum around ethics. The first part of the paper traces the history of the social studies from the Colonial period to the present. In the second section the author presents four assumptions intended to serve as discussion organizers and criteria for establishing new directions in social studies. The third part of the paper focuses on implications of these assumptions for social education.

Lengel, James G. and H. Donn McCafferty, *Guide to Concept Development in the Social Studies* (Vermont State Department of Education, 1975). 113 pp. ED 123 170. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$9.15.

This guide lists and defines concepts from seven social science disciplines: anthropology-sociology, economics, geography, history, political science, and psychology. Focus questions for teachers to use with students are provided for the concepts, as are strategies for concept teaching at the elementary and secondary levels.

Lipsky, William E., "Integrating Ethnic Studies into the Curriculum," Curriculum Review 17, no. 3 (August 1978), pp. 164-168. EJ 189 848.

Few recent educational reform movements have offered more possibilities for fundamentally changing the nature of American education than ethnic studies. The author presents some guidelines for integrating ethnic studies into the school curriculum.

Pratt, Fran, "Teaching About Aging: Considerations for the Curriculum," Social Science Record 15, no. 3 (Spring 1978), pp. 30-34. EJ 182 333. Reprint available from UMI.

Pratt encourages secondary schools to include the topic of aging in the social studies curriculum. He sets forth some basic issues about aging in America, demonstrates their relevance to social studies, and suggests resources and teaching strategies.

Program of Studies, Social Studies, K-8 (Montgomery County, Maryland, Public Schools, 1979). 29 pp. ED 193 152. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

Educational objectives and brief course descriptions for a social studies program, grades K-8, are presented. The first section outlines the proposed K-6 social studies design, identifying themes, organizing concepts, organizing questions, instructional objectives, and suggested topics of study by grade level. Section 2 describes existing social studies program and outlines learning objectives by grade level.

Social Studies Curriculum Guide, Grades K-6, Bulletin 1601 (Louisiana State Department of Education, 1981). 309 pp. ED 211 447. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$23.15.

This curriculum guide outlines the scope and sequence for an elementary social studies program. Five major conceptual strands along with themes at each grade level form the basic scope and sequence for the elementary program. The recommended themes for each grade level are: grade 1--home, family, and community; grade 2--school and community; grade 3--contrasting communities; grade 4--regional studies; grade 5--national studies; and grade 6--world studies. The conceptual strands which provide the continuity from one grade to the next are: physical geography, social organization, economic organization, political organization, and historical heritage.

Social Studies: A Guide for Curriculum Development (Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, 1978). 223 pp. ED 153 900. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$17.95.

This social studies curriculum guide is designed for grades K-12. The elementary section identifies and defines major concepts, indicates where they appear in selected textbooks, lists skills which should be developed, provides a description of the child at each grade level, and offers suggestions for evaluation. The secondary section consists of units used as examples for teaching American history and government, anthropology, economics, geography, seventh-grade global studies, world civilizations, psychology, and sociology. Also presented are flow and concept charts describing the scope of the social science disciplines.

Social Studies Program in Virginia's Public Schools, K-12, The: A Framework (Virginia State Department of Education, 1980). 25 pp. ED 195 482. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$2.15.

This working draft framework for the social studies program in Virginia's public schools is intended to provide guidelines for local school divisions in planning the social studies curriculum for grades K-12. The framework begins with outlines of the current and proposed K-12 social studies scope and sequence. The following section, which comprises the bulk of the document, contains a program description or general overview of the social studies content for each grade level.

Tyler, June and David L. Manning, A Guide to Curriculum Development in Social Studies (Connecticut State Department of Education, 1981). 114 pp. ED 214 849. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$9.15. PC also available from SSEC Publications, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302: $8.95.

This guide presents a framework and offers alternatives for developing a logical and consistent K-12 social studies scope and sequence. Among the topics covered are a definition of social studies, the curriculum development process, rationale and goals, content of the social studies, construction of scope and sequence, instructional techniques, evaluation, and program implementation.

Identifying and Selecting Materials

Kachaturoff, Grace, "Textbook Evaluation and Selection," Social Studies 73, no. 1 (January-February 1982), pp. 32-36. EJ 260 533. Reprint available from UMI.

The author discusses why teachers must help to review and/or select textbooks on a regular basis and how they can participate in this process. A slightly revised edition of the criteria used by the State of Michigan Social Studies Review Steering Committee illustrates critical factors that must be considered in evaluating textbooks.

Rice, Glorianne and George H. Rice, Jr., "A Selection Guide for Elementary Social Studies Textbooks," Social Studies 73, no. 2 (March-April 1982), pp. 61-67. EJ 262 496. Reprint available from UMI.

The authors discuss the development of an instrument to be used by elementary teachers in the evaluation of social studies textbooks. The instrument is included in the article.

Singleton, Laurel R., Data Book of Social Studies Materials and Resources (Social Science Education Consortium, 1982). 192 pp. ED 210 234. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$14.40. PC also available from SSEC Publications, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302: $10.00.

This annual publication includes analyses of 50 to 60 sets of new social studies curriculum materials each year. Also described are teacher resources and ERIC documents with practical applications in the social studies classroom.

Tom, Alan, An Approach to Selecting Among Social Studies Curricula, rev. ed. (Central Regional Educational Lab, 1977). 23 pp. ED 152 605. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$2.15.

The paper is designed to aid social studies educators and teachers in selecting curriculum materials. It is presented in three sections. Section 1 outlines problems involved in choosing among curricula. Section 2 summarizes the views of several educators and social scientists who suggest that responsible citizenship is the primary goal of social studies instruction. Section 3 identifies and describes 12 national values education curriculum projects.

Turner, Mary Jane, Guide to Basic Citizenship Competencies: Recommendations to Compare Curriculum Materials, Assess Classroom Instruction, and Set Goals (Ohio State University and Social Science Education Consortium, 1979). 57 pp. ED 177 036. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$5.65.

Part of the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project, this guide is intended for teachers, supervisors, and curriculum committees. It provides diagnostic guidelines which aid in assessing needs, setting goals, and making systematic judgments about citizenship education programs and materials.

Planning for Program Evaluation

Curriculum Review Handbook: Social Studies (Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1981). ED 208 536. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This handbook's eight sections consist primarily of open-ended questions and checklists that allow for flexibility and adaptation in reviewing, analyzing, and evaluating a school's social studies curriculum. The major section on program evaluation contains a lengthy checklist that teachers can use to determine the presence of elements that would be included in a quality social studies program.

Elementary Program Review Handbook and Secondary Program Review Handbook (California State Department of Education, 1981). ED 212 080 and ED 212 081. EDRS price: MF-$0.97 plus postage for each document. PC available only from California State Department of Education, Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95802: $1.50 each.

California's review process has been designed to judge the effects of the school program on students and staff and to identify opportunities for improving the program. The elementary handbook contains three chapters: one describes the program review process, the second explains how to conduct a review and includes the criteria used to judge and improve programs, and the third describes how to report findings. The secondary handbook describes three parts of a review: the effect of instruction on students, the effect of support on instruction, and the effect of the improvement process on support and instruction.

Evaluation Guide (Georgia State Department of Education, 1979). ED 181 566. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This resource guide provides step-by-step guidance to help schools evaluate an adopted program, emphasizing that evaluation should be addressed from the first day of planning to provide data for short-term and long-term decision-making. Topics covered include evaluation purpose, goals and objectives, assessment instruments, data requirements, data collection, data analysis, monitoring, and reporting.

Greenawald, G. Dale and Douglas P. Superka, Evaluating Social Studies Programs: Focus on Law-Related Education (Social Science Education Consortium, 1982). 250 pp. ED 221 448. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$17.90. PC also available from SSEC publications, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302: $14.95.

This handbook provides a step-by-step model for evaluating social studies programs, followed by 14 activities designed to provide staff with the skills needed to implement the model. Examples throughout are drawn from law-related education, but the model and activities are equally applicable to all social studies programs.

Installing and Maintaining the Program

Corbett, H. Dickson, III, "School Contingencies in the Continuation of Planned Change," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New York, 1982). 40 pp. ED 214 292. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

To examine the durability of educational changes, researchers studied the school-related factors that promote or hinder the maintenance of classroom instructional changes beyond the initial period of implementation. Their data indicate that the most important factors promoting continuation are teacher incentives (from administrators, other teachers, and students) for making the changes, revision of the curriculum guide and other school rules governing instructional behavior, and assessments of the changes' effectiveness.

Goldstein, Marjorie T., "Using Administrative Tactics to Introduce Curriculum Innovation," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New York, 1982). 32 pp. ED 214 310. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

This study attempted to identify which tactics used by administrators have the greatest influence on the introduction of special education curriculum innovations. Tactics used were categorized as empirical-rational (involving the communication of information), power coercive (involving the use of mandates or orders), and normative-re-educative (involving the creation of conditions within which teachers may innovate). The only tactics significantly correlated with extent of diffusion of the innovation (defined as teachers in possession of all or part of the curriculum at the time of the study) were the empirical-rational tactics.

Gress, James R., Managing School Curriculum/Program/System Change: Initial Identification of Criteria (1979). 21 pp. ED 188 291. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC not available.

Five empirically based literature sources that identify variables potentially associated with successful implementation of curriculum change are synthesized and summarized. Curricula that are responsive to real local problems and do not deviate significantly from local value systems appear to be more successfully implemented than others. Teachers of relatively greater professional experience and competence probably change professional behaviors more easily than others. Consistency between change system characteristics and community expectations appears to facilitate curriculum change. Curriculum change is optimized in positive or supportive environments. Finally, curriculum implementation can be facilitated only when adequate time, materials, staff, and fiscal resources exist, when the change involved is a high priority, and when needed resources are available.

Hanna, Bill, "Staff Development: Some Principles and Priorities," Social Studies Review 20, no. 3 (Spring 1981), pp. 41-44. EJ 250 449. Reprint available from UMI.

This article outlines eight principles and five priorities of social studies classroom teacher staff development. Principles include identifying teacher needs, matching teacher inservice preferences with program offerings, and devoting quality time throughout the year to skill development. Priorities include working with volunteer teachers, establishing a content focus, and providing for individual teacher involvement.

Shaver, James P., "The NSF Studies of Pre-Collegiate Education: Implications for Social Studies Professors and Curriculum Developers," paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies (Portland, Oregon, 1979). 24 pp. ED 178 446. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$2.15.

The necessity for social studies professors and curriculum developers to recognize the reality of teacher attitudes and classroom situations is discussed. The author contends that teachers are not very reflective about what they teach and about the effect of their teaching on students. Other conflicts are a result of the focus of both groups. Social studies professors and developers tend to focus on conceptual structures which will excite, interest, and develop independent thinking. Teachers focus on how to control and manage students. Also, conflict results from the democratic mandate for both stability and progress. Social studies teachers, members of a community in which values of conformity dominate, gravitate toward stability, while university professors advocate teaching controversial issues.

APPENDIX A

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Name and Address	Description of Resources	Crade Level
CTB 2500 Garden Road Monterey, CA 89840 800/537-9547 800/682-9222 in CA	Objective-referenced bank of items and tests (ORBIT). Objective-referenced tests in social studies can be constructed on a contract basis.	Elementary, secondary
Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541 609/920-9000	Sequential tests of educational progress, categorized by broad objectives in the social studies.	Elementary, secondary
Commercial-Educational District Services Box 4791 Portland, OR 97208	Social studies course goals developed by the Tri-County Development Project of the Multnomah County Educational Service District.	Elementary, secondary
Institute for Educational Research 793 N. Main Street Glen Ellyn, IL 60137 312/858-8060	Objectives and items. Questionnaires and assessments can be designed on a contract basis.	Elementary, secondary
Minnesota Statewide Assessment 550 Cedar Street 734 Capital Square Bldg. St. Paul, MN 55101 602/296-6005	Objectives and test items matched to those objectives.	Objectives: elementary, secondary Test items: varies by subject area
National Assessment of Educational Progress 300 Lincoln Tower 1860 Lincoln Street Denver, CO 80295 303/830-3600	Objectives and test exercises, reports of national test results.	Ages 9, 13, and 17
Scholastic Testing Service 480 Meyer Road Bensenville, IL 60106 312/766-7150	Survival-skill objective-referenced tests including a few social studies items. Social studies objective-referenced tests can be constructed on a contract basis.	Elementary, secondary

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE FORMATS FOR SCOPE-AND-SEQUENCE STATEMENTS

This appendix includes six examples of how content might be presented in a curriculum guide. There is no one best way to present content. The most appropriate presentation may depend on the intended audience. For the public, the presentation should be relatively simple, showing main themes or courses. For teachers, the presentation may include general goal statements, generalizations to be taught, and specific topics.

This appendix does not show complete scopes and sequences. The samples presented are intended to give planners some ideas for further development.

EXAMPLE 1: GENERALIZATIONS FROM SOCIAL SCIENCE DISCIPLINES BY GRADE LEVEL

Grade Levels

	Kindergarten	First Grade	Second Grade	...etc.
GEOGRAPHY	People adapt the natural environment to meet their needs.	Natural resources determine the kind of skills people use.	Topography helps determine how neighborhood communities are laid out.	
ECONOMICS	Our schools need special workers who provide services.	Members of the school family are dependent upon each other.	People earn a living by producing services and goods for others.	
SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY	Children go to school to learn, to work, and to play together.	Children everywhere go to school.	Business tends to locate in the central area of the neighborhood.	
	We depend upon one another for love, approval, and help at school as well as at home.	Children everywhere belong to a family.	The school is one of the places where we learn.	
GOVERNMENT	We can live happily together if we respect the rights of others.	Rules and regulations are needed for safety and courtesy.	Organization and rules are necessary for good living in the classroom.	

EXAMPLE 2: TYPICAL EXPANDING HORIZONS, K-6

GRADE SIX

LATIN AMERICA: NEIGHBORS TO THE SOUTH
- An Overview of Latin American Geography
- Exploration and Development of Latin America
- Modern Latin America--Problems Facing Its People
- Interdependency of the Western Hemisphere

GRADE FIVE

THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA
- Early Exploration in the Western Hemisphere
- Colonial Living Leads to Independence
- Our United States
- Canada, An Independent Nation

GRADE FOUR

THE WORLD AS THE HOME OF MAN
- Learning to Think Geographically
- Ways People Live in Hot-Wet and Hot-Dry Lands
- Ways People Live in Highland and Lowland Regions
- The World of Many People

GRADE THREE

THE LARGER COMMUNITY
- Communities of Our State
- A Large City Community
- Other Communities in the United States
- Citizenship and Responsibility in the Community

GRADE TWO

THE WORLD BEYOND OUR NEIGHBORHOOD
- Recreation in Our Local Natural Surroundings
- How We Get Our Food
- Ways We Travel
- Children of Other Lands

GRADE ONE

NEIGHBORHOODS AND COMMUNITIES
- Good Citizenship in the Neighborhood
- Families Near and Far
- The Neighborhood Shopping Center
- People Who Help Us

KINDERGARTEN

IMMEDIATE SURROUNDINGS
- School Living
- Our Family
- Who Am I?

EXAMPLE 3: QUESTIONS AND CONCEPTS--PRIMARY LEVEL

Modes and Processes Of Inquiry	Illustrative Concepts	Illustrative Settings
1. What is human?		
Analytic Observation Classification Integrative Comparison	Human or man or mankind Reptiles, mammals, etc. (Infant dependency)	Mammals, reptiles Members of the class A Pacific Island community Your school
2. How do men and animals adapt to and change the land they live on?		
Analytic Classification Observation Communication Integrative Comparison	Landforms and water bodies (Adaptation and ecology) Climate, weather (Topography)	Landforms and water bodies The students and their community Eskimos, other tribal groups Animals, including prehistoric
3. Why do things have names?		
Analytic As above Integrative Comparison Policy Valuing	Name (symbol) Language (written language)	Members of the class Plains Indians or Japanese Animals

EXAMPLE 4: ABBREVIATED SCOPE AND SEQUENCE AND GOALS

POSSIBLE SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

LEVEL 1 (Kdg., Grades 1 & 2) (Steps of Progression--1, 2, & 3)
Step 1--Home and School
Step 2--Home, School, and Neighborhood
Step 3--Community Life (Near Home)
A broad introduction to group living. Both formal and informal activities should be provided to give the student needed social skills and understandings of his rights and responsibilities. Every opportunity should be used to informally expand the young student's awareness of the world about him.

Level II (Grades 3 & 4) (Steps of Progression--4 & 5)
Step 4--A formal study of selected communities of the world. Topics should be selected to give the students an understanding of the varying ways of life.
Step 5--United States Regions and Own State

LEVEL III (Grades 5 & 6) (Steps of Progression--6 & 7)
Step 6--Introduction to United States History
Step 7--Depth study of Western Hemisphere (Canada and Latin America) with continuation of emphasis on varying ways of life.

LEVEL IV (Grades 7, 8, & 9) (Steps of Progression--8, 9, & 10)
Step 8--Depth study of selected areas of the Eastern Hemisphere (Africa, Asia, Middle East, and Australia)
Step 9--Government Studies (Civics) Local, state, national, and international. A study of careers may be incorporated in schools having no other provision for it.
Step 10--Old World Backgrounds to the American Revolutionary Period

LEVEL V (Grades 10, 11, & 12) (Steps of Progression--11, 12, & 13)
Step 11--American History
Steps 12 & 13--World Culture and Suggested Electives

SOME GOALS OF A SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

1. Recognition of the dignity and worth of the individual. INDIVIDUAL

2. The use of intelligence to improve human living. INTELLIGENCE

3. Recognition and understanding of world interdependence. INTERDEPENDENCE

4. Understanding the major world cultures and culture areas. CULTURE

5. The intelligent uses of the natural environment. CONSERVATION

6. The vitalization of our democracy through an intelligent use of our public educational facilities. EDUCATION

7. The intelligent acceptance by individuals and groups of responsibility for achieving democratic social action. RESPONSIBILITY

8. Increasing the effectiveness of the family as a basic social institution. FAMILY

9. The effective development of moral and spiritual values. MORALITY

10. The intelligent and responsible sharing of power in order to attain justice. JUSTICE

11. The intelligent utilization of scarce resources to attain the widest general well-being. SCARCITY

12. Achievement of adequate horizons of loyalty. LOYALTY

13. Cooperation in the interest of peace and welfare. PEACE

14. Achieving a balance between social stability and social change. PROGRESS

15. Widening and deepening the ability to live more richly. SELF-REALIZATION

EXAMPLE 5: TRADITIONAL SEQUENCE, K-12

THEMES	Kindergarten	Self, Home
	Grade 1	Families
	Grade 2	Neighborhoods
	Grade 3	Communities
	Grade 4	Geographic Regions, State History
	Grade 5	U.S. History
	Grade 6	Old World Backgrounds of U.S. History
COURSES	Grade 7	World Geography
	Grade 8	U.S. History and Civics
	Grade 9	Ancient History
	Grade 10	World History
	Grade 11	U.S. History
	Grade 12	U.S. Government or Problems of Democracy

EXAMPLE 6: NONTRADITIONAL SEQUENCE, K-12

Kindergarten: Learning About Our World; Children in Other Lands
Grade 1: Learning About Our Country; Explorers and Discoverers
Grade 2: Communities at Home and Abroad; Communities in the United States
Grade 3: The Making of Anglo-America; The Metropolitan Community
Grade 4: The Story of Agriculture; The Story of Industry; India: A Society in Transition (Area Study)
Grade 5: The Human Adventure I: Ancient Civilization; The Human Adventure II: Classical Civilization; The Human Adventure III: Medieval Civilization; The Middle East (Area Study)
Grade 6: The Human Adventure IV: The Rise of Modern Civilization; The Human Adventure V: The Coming of World Civilization; Latin America (Area Study)
Grade 7: The Human Adventure VI: Recent and Contemporary Civilization; Principles of Geography; Africa (Area Study)
Grade 8: Six Generations of Americans--the Colonies and the Young Republic; Six Generations of Americans--the Growth of a Titan: 1855-1910; North America and the Caribbean (Area Study)
Grade 9: The Political and Economic Systems of the United States and the Soviet Union; The USSR: Politics and Economics of a Totalitarian Society; Europe (Area Study)
Grade 10: The History of Civilization and Great Ideas I; The Far East (Area Study)
Grade 11: The History of Civilization and Great Ideas II; The Pacific Ocean and Australia (Area Study)
Grade 12: American Constitutional Government; Research and Problems in the Social Sciences

APPENDIX C

PUBLISHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS

ABT Associates
55 Wheeler St.
Cambridge, MA 02138

Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.
2725 Sand Hill Road
Menlo Park, CA 94025

Agency for Instructional Television
Box A
Bloomington, IN 47402

Alarion Press
Box 1882
Boulder, CO 80306

Allyn and Bacon
7 Wells Avenue
Newton, MA 02157

American Guidance Service
Publishers' Building
Circle Pines, MN 55014

American Universities Field Staff
3 Lebanon St.
Hanover, NH 03755

Amidon and Associates
1966 Benson St.
St. Paul, MN 55116

Amsco School Publications
315 Hudson St.
New York, NY 10013

Argus Communications
7440 Natchez Ave.
Niles, IL 60648

Atheneum Publishers
122 E. 42nd St.
New York, NY 10017

Avon Books
School Division
959 Eighth Ave.
New York, NY 10017

Bantam Books
School and College Division
666 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10019

Barrons Educational Series
113 Crossways Park Dr.
Woodbury, NY 11797

Benefic Press
10300 W. Roosevelt Rd.
Westchester, IL 60153

Bobbs-Merrill
4300 W. 62nd St.
Indianapolis, IN 46206

Cambridge Book Co.
888 Seventh Ave.
New York, NY 10019

Center for Teaching International Relations
University of Denver
Denver, CO 80208

Changing Times Educational Service
1729 H St., NW
Washington, DC 20006

Clearvue Co.
6666 N. Oliphant Ave.
Chicago, IL 60631

CloseUp Foundation
1234 Jefferson Davis Hwy.
Arlington, VA 22202

Constitutional Rights Foundation
1510 Cotner Ave.
Los Angeles, CA 90025

Coronet Instructional Media
65 E. South Water St.
Chicago, IL 60601

Council on Interracial Books for Children
1841 Broadway
New York, NY 10023

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Current Affairs Films
Box 398
24 Danbury Road
Wilton, CT 06897

Curriculum Development
  Associates
1211 Connecticut Ave., NW
Suite 414
Washington, DC 20036

Dell Publishing Co.
1 Dag Hammarskjold Plaza
245 E. 47th St.
New York, NY 10017

Dennoyer-Ceppert Audio-Visual
5235 Ravenswood Ave.
Chicago, IL 60640

Dial Publishing Co.
1 Dag Hammarskjold Plaza
245 E. 47th St.
New York, NY 10017

Doubleday and Co.
245 Park Ave.
New York, NY 10022

Economy Co.
1901 N. Walnut
Oklahoma City, OK 73125

Education Development Center
55 Chapel St.
Newton, MA 02160

Education Exploration Center
Box 7339
Powderhorn Station
Minneapolis, MN 55407

Educational Activities
Box 392
Freeport, NY 11520

Educational Design, Inc.
47 W. 13th St.
New York, NY 10001

Education Enrichment Materials
357 Adams St.
Bedford Hills, NY 10507

Educational Research Council
  of America
Rockefeller Building
Cleveland, OH 44113

EMC Corporation
180 E. Sixth St.
St. Paul, MN 55101

Encore Visual Education
1235 S. Victory Blvd.
Burbank, CA 91502

Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corp.
425 N. Michigan Ave.
Chicago, IL 60611

Feminist Press
Box 334
Old Westbury, NY 11568

Fideler
31 Ottawa, NW
Grand Rapids, MI 49503

Follett Publishing Co.
1010 W. Washington Blvd.
Chicago, IL 60607

Foreign Policy Associates
205 Lexington Ave.
New York, NY 10016

Ginn and Co.
191 Spring St.
Lexington, MA 02173

Global Perspectives in
  Education
218 E. 18th St.
New York, NY 10003

Globe Book Co.
50 W. 23rd St.
New York, NY 10010

Graphic Learning Corp.
855 Broadway
Boulder, CO 80302

Greenhaven Press
577 Shoreview Park Rd.
St. Paul, MN 55112

Guidance Associates
Box 3000
Communications Park
Mount Kisco, NY 10549

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich
757 Third Ave.
New York, NY 10017

Harper and Row
10 E. 53rd St.
New York, NY 10022

Hayden Book Co.
50 Essex St.
Rochelle Park, NJ 02173

Heath, D.C., and Co.
125 Spring St.
Lexington, MA 02173

History Simulations
Box 2775
Santa Clara, CA 95051

Holt, Rinehart and Winston
383 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10017

Houghton Mifflin Co.
One Beacon St.
Boston, MA 02107

Human Relations Media Center
175 Tompkins Ave.
Pleasantville, NY 10570

Human Sciences Press
75 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10011

Institute for Political/Legal Education
207 Delsea Drive
RD #4, Box 209
Sewell, NJ 11746

Interact Co.
Box 997
Lakeside, CA 92040

Joint Council on Economic Education
1212 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10036

Laidlaw Brothers
Thatcher and Madison
River Forest, IL 60305

Law in a Free Society
5115 Douglas Fir Drive
Suite 1
Calabasas, CA 91302

Learning Corp.
1350 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10019

Learning Seed Co.
21250 N. Andover Rd.
Kildeer, IL 60047

Legal Studies Simulations
42 Elwood Dr.
Springfield, MA 01108

Little, Brown and Co.
34 Beacon St.
Boston, MA 02106

Macmillan Publishing Co.
866 Third Ave.
New York, NY 10022

McDougal, Littell and Co.
630 Green Bay Rd.
Kenilworth, IL 60043

McGraw-Hill Book Co.
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

Media Basics
Larchmont Plaza
Larchmont, NY 10538

Merrill Publishing Co.
1300 Alum Creek Dr.
Columbus, OH 43216

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Messner, Julian
1230 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

Modern Curriculum Press
13900 Prospect Rd.
Cleveland, OH 44136

Multi-Media Productions
Box 5097
Stanford, CA 94025

National Council for the
Social Studies
3501 Newark St., NW
Washington, DC 20016

National Geographic Society
17th and M Streets, NW
Washington, DC 20036

National Textbook Co.
8529 Niles Center Rd.
Skokie, IL 60076

Newsweek Education Division
444 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10022

Nystrom
3333 Elston Ave.
Chicago, IL 60618

Pitman Learning
6 Davis Dr.
Belmont, CA 94002

Prentice-Hall
Educational Books Division
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

Prentice-Hall Media
150 White Plains Rd.
Tarrytown, NY 10591

Rand McNally and Co.
Box 7600
Chicago, IL 60680

Random House
201 East 50th St.
New York, NY 10022

Riverside Publishing
8420 Bryn Mawr Ave.
Chicago, IL 60631

Science Research Associates
155 N. Wacker Dr.
Chicago, IL 60606

Scholastic Book Services
904 Sylvan Ave.
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

Scott, Foresman and Co.
1900 E. Lake Ave.
Glenview, IL 60025

Silver Burdett Co.
General Learning Corp.
250 James St.
Morristown, NJ 07960

Simile II
Box 910
Del Mar, CA 92014

Social Issues Resources Series
Box 2507
Boca Raton, FL 33432

Society for Visual Education
1345 Diversey Parkway
Chicago, IL 60614

South-Western Publishing Co.
355 Conde St.
West Chicago, IL 60185

Steck-Vaughn Co.
Box 2028
Austin, TX 78767

Sunburst Communications
39 Washington Ave.
Pleasantville, NY 10570

Teachers College Press
1234 Amsterdam Ave.
New York, NY 10020

Time-Life Multimedia
Time & Life Building
New York, NY 10020

J. Westor Walch
Box 658
Portland, ME 04104

Walt Disney Educational Media
500 S. Buena Vista St.
Burbank, CA 91521

West Publishing Co.
170 Old Country Rd.
Mineola, NY 11501

Winston Press
430 Oak Grove, Suite 203
Minneapolis, MN 55403

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave.
Wellesley, MA 02181

Xerox Education Publications
Box 444
Columbus, OH 43216

Zenger Productions
Gateway Station 802
Culver City, CA 90230

APPENDIX D

EVALUATION AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL TOOL*

Evaluating growth in learning is a multifaceted task. Many teachers, parents, and administrators tend to think of measurement of educational growth only in terms of tests and testing. Evaluation is a collective term for many of the ways and methods available for students, teachers, administrators, and parents to obtain feedback about the effectiveness of the teacher/learning process. Testing is only one component of evaluation, a component that involves the use of a particular grouping of instruments and/or procedures to determine students' knowledge or intelligence. Measurement is the procedure by which student behavior is described, usually in mathematical terms. Grading is the attempt by teachers to sum up their estimates of students' work in terms of marks or symbols. Thus, evaluation becomes the umbrella under which these components operate in the instructional program.

Evaluation must be sufficiently diversified so that it can be integrated into all stages of curriculum planning and implementation. Within the classroom, student evaluation by teachers (and specialists) may include (1) classroom observations, (2) interviews and critiques, (3) tape recordings of individual and group activities, (4) case studies, (5) students' checklists and worksheets, (6) group discussions, (7) individual and group conferences, (8) diaries and logs, (9) sociograms, (10) pictures, drawings, murals, and montages, (11) checklists, inventories, and questionnaires, (12) audio and visual tapes, (13) commercial tests, and (14) teacher-made tests.

Data collected using these techniques should be sufficient to answer students' questions about how they are doing in their schooling. Questions that students might ask are:

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*The bulk of this paper was taken, with minor changes, from Evaluation and Social Studies: Practical Ideas for Classroom Teachers, a bulletin developed by the Texas Education Agency. For use of this material we are especially indebted to Elvin Tyrone, social studies consultant; Leroy Psencik, director of the division of curriculum development; and Louis Grigar, program director for social studies.

1. What are my strengths and weaknesses?
2. Am I meeting my expectations for myself?
3. Am I meeting the teacher's expectations?
4. Am I developing feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment?
5. Am I becoming qualified for the next important step in my schooling?
6. How am I doing in comparison to my class or group?

This paper provides guidelines to help teachers more effectively evaluate student learning in a way that informs the instructional process.

Improvement of Testing Tools

All teachers evaluate the efforts and progress of their students as a regular part of their work, but many are dissatisfied with the quality and usefulness of the appraisals they make. Teachers are continually reviewing the role that instructional objectives play in improving written tests. Many educators feel a test should possess the following characteristics:

1. Clarify--trivia and ambiguity must be avoided.
2. Consistency--test items and responses should be worded in the same form throughout the test.
3. Accuracy--the desired answers should be correct ones, and the distractors (wrong answers) should indeed distract.
4. Avoidance of racial, socioeconomic, religious, or sexual bias--all the knowledge and skills needed to answer the questions correctly should have been taught in the unit or course.
5. Emphasis on skills and concepts--the test items should be written to sample adequately each specific learning outcome.
6. Emphasis on content and methodology--the test items should be written to measure student mastery of the content and instructional strategies covered in the course.

Social studies teachers should remember that tests are one of the surest means that students have for uncovering the "hidden agenda" of a course--discovering what teachers regard as important. Therefore, the questions teachers select for inclusion in a test become very important in the evaluation process.

Constructing a Short-Answer Test. The short-answer form is characterized by the presence of a blank on which the student writes the answer called for by the directions. Three varieties of the short-answer form are:

1. The question variety.
   Who invented the cotton gin? (Eli Whitney)

2. The completion variety.
   The explorers of the Louisiana Territory were (Lewis and Clark).

3. The identification or association variety.
   After each major city write the state in which it is located.
   New Orleans (Louisiana)
   San Antonio (Texas)
   Atlanta (Georgia)

Short-answer items are primarily useful for measuring knowledge of factual information; they are not easily adaptable to measuring understanding and application. They are more likely to measure whether students remember the statement as it appeared in the text than whether they comprehend the information.

Teachers should use the following guidelines for constructing short-answer items:

1. State the item so that the answer is limited to a word or brief phrase.

2. Explicitly state and quality the item so that only one response is correct.

When did the War Between the States end? (1865)

Other possible answers to this question ae: "in the 1860's," "when Lee surrendered to Grant," etc.--these answers are correct, but the teacher expected the answer "1865." A better way of writing the items is: (1865) was the year that Lee surrendered to Grant, ending the War Between the States.

3. Use terms that will have the same meaning to all students.

4. Structure sentences as simply as possible, so that the question will be clear to all students.

5. Ask only for important information.

6. Make all answer blanks equal in length.

7. Don't include questions that have more than one correct answer.

8. Don't use questions verbatim from the textbook or lecture notes.

Constructing a Multiple-Choice Test. A multiple-choice test item consists of a stem, stated in question or incomplete statement form, and several possible answers. The incorrect alternatives are called distractors because their function is to distract students who have not achieved the specific learning outcome being measured by the item.

Some varieties of the multiple-choice form are:

1. The correct-answer variety.
   Who invented the sewing machine? (b)
   (a) Singer (c) Whitney
   (b) Howe (d) Fulton

2. The best-answer variety.
   What was the basic purpose of the Marshall Plan?
   (b)
   (a) Military defense of Western Europe
   (b) Reestablishment of business and industry in Western Europe
   (c) Settlement of differences with Russia
   (d) Direct help to the hungry and homeless in Europe

(It is important to remember that the difference between best-answer and correct-answer items is more one of topic than of form. The name of the inventor of the sewing machine is recorded in history beyond question or doubt. The purposes of the Marshall Plan cannot be stated with such precision.)

3. The multiple-response variety.
   Which of the following are examples of an ethnic group?
   (b,d)
   (a) Southerners (c) Texans
   (b) Italian Americans (d) Anglo Americans

4. The incomplete-statement variety.
   The predominate religion in colonial New England was
   (d)
   (a) Anglican (d) Congregational
   (b) Lutheran (e) Baptist
   (c) Quaker

5. The negative variety.
   Dictatorships do not accept the principle that
   (c)
   (a) might makes right
   (b) strict censorship is necessary
   (c) the state exists for the individual
   (d) one political party should be supreme

A multiple-choice test is useful for measuring knowledge, understanding, and application. Because of its versatility, it is the most widely used objective-type test.

2[illegible]

Use the following guidelines in constructing multiple-choice items:

1. Write a stem that presents a single, definite problem.

2. Keep the reading level low (avoid wordiness, technical terminology, and complex sentence structure).

3. Make sure the questions are concise, unambiguous, and grammatically correct.

4. Use questions that are germane to the area being measured.

5. Keep the alternatives brief, similar in form, and grammatically congruent with the stem.

6. Avoid giving clues to the correct answer (verbal associations, textbook language, length of alternatives).

7. Provide the same number of alternative responses for each question.

8. Avoid the phrases "none of the above" and "all of the above," if possible.

9. Review each completed item for clarity and for relevance to the specific learning outcome to be measured.

10. Don't mix conflicting frames of reference within a single item.

11. Don't provide superfluous information.

12. Avoid using a pattern in the rotation of correct responses (for example, the correct answer to every fourth item is "e").

Constructing a True-False Test. The true-false test may hold the questionable distinction of being both the most popular type of test with classroom teachers and the most criticized regarding its construction and the significance of what it apparently measures. When constructing a true-false test, a teacher should be aware of its weaknesses as well as its strengths.

Some of the major weaknesses of the true-false test are:

1. Students have a 50/50 chance of answering correctly simply by guessing. Thus, determining whether objectives have actually been mastered is difficult.

2. True-false items do not provide diagnostic information. An item may have been correctly marked on the basis of misinformation or incorrectly marked because the student misread or misinterpreted the question. For example:

(___F___) Abraham Lincoln was the first president of the United States.

A student who remembers that Abraham Lincoln was the first Republican president might mark the item true.

The strengths of the true-false test are:

1. It may be rapidly and accurately scored.
2. The scoring is completely objective--such extraneous factors as the student's dress, neatness, politeness, and writing style have no influence on the teacher's scoring.
3. It can be administered relatively quickly, since less time per item is required in scoring.
4. It can be relatively quickly constructed and refined.
5. The structure is simple.
6. It is useful for review and discussion purposes.

Before developing a true-false test, a teacher should carefully consider the limitations of this format and select instructional objectives that are amenable to measurement by this type of test. True-false tests are most useful in situations where measurement of the acquisition of factual, noninterpretive information is desired--for example, vocabulary, technical terms, dates, and proper names.

Use the following guidelines in constructing true-false test items:

1. Write statements that can be unquestionably judged as true or false (avoid partly true statements).
2. Keep the reading level low (avoid vague terms and complex sentence structure).
3. Write concise, unambiguous, grammatically correct statements.
4. Use statements that are germane to the area being tested.
5. Avoid negative statements.
6. Avoid using specific determiners (always, never, sometimes, maybe).
7. Keep the true and false statements approximately equal in length and number.
8. Don't use unnecessary words and phrases or include more than one theme in each item.
9. Avoid creating a pattern in the order of the responses (every other statement false).
10. Don't lift statements directly from the textbook or class notes.

Constructing a Matching Test. A matching test is a specialized form of the multiple-choice test in which a set of related stems (premises) must be paired with a set of alternative answers. An example of this type of item is:

> Directions: On the line to the left of each statement in column 1, write the letter from column 2 with which the item is correctly associated.
>
> Column 1
>
> 1. ___(C)___ This victory was a major factor in obtaining the alliance between France and the 13 colonies.
> 2. ___(E)___ After Washington's retreat from New York, this victory renewed hope in the American cause.
> 3. ___(B)___ For this victory, Washington's troops surrounded the enemy by land and French ships cut off help from the sea.
>
> Column 2
>
> A. Bunker Hill
> B. Yorktown
> C. Saratoga
> D. Monmouth
> E. Trenton

The strengths of matching items are:

1. They may be used to measure the lower levels of the cognitive domain. Vocabulary, dates, events, and simple relationships can be efficiently and effectively measured.

2. They are particularly adaptable to "who, what, when, or where" situations.

3. Higher levels of the cognitive domain can be developed when qualified material is presented and the matching exercise is based on this material.

4. They can be scored rapidly, accurately, and objectively, even by individuals who are unqualified to teach in the subject area being examined.

The weaknesses of the matching type of items are:

1. They are not particularly applicable to measurement of the higher levels of the cognitive domain.

2. The items of a set are interdependent. How the student responds to one premise of a set influences the responses to all other premises.

3. It is difficult to construct homogeneous premises--the first prerequisite for a set of matching items to function properly. For example:

The following items refer to the pre-Revolutionary period in United States history (1763-1775). Match the information given in column 1 with the appropriate information given in column 2. An answer may be used only once.

Column 1	Column 2
1. (B) Regulated colonial trade	A. Parliament
2. (C) Frontier closed by proclamation	B. Navigation Acts
3. (A) English legislative body	C. 1763
4. (F) British troops raided Lexington and Concord	D. Stamp Act
5. (D) Taxed newspapers, legal papers, calendars	E. 1768
	F. 1775

A weakness in this example is the attempt to use premises that are not homegeneous. Furthermore, the introductory statement is ambiguous. The student knows that all the items are related to the period 1763-1775. The use of heterogeneous items gives too many clues to the student. For example, item 3 could be correctly answered without any knowledge of British government. Alternatives A, C, E, and F would likely be eliminated from consideration for items 1, 2, and 5, and item 4 is likely to be answered by one of three alternatives (C, E, F).

If social studies teachers keep instructional objectives in mind when preparing matching exercises and if the items chosen are appropriate to the purpose of the test (mastery), the matching exercise should be valid.

Use the following guidelines in constructing a matching test:

1. Establish a frame of reference for answering the test items.
2. Establish a general orientation in the introductory statement.
3. Write clear directions explaining the basis for matching and indicating whether the responses may be used more than once.
4. Be clear and concise and use correct grammar.
5. Use homegeneous premises.
6. Don't provide superfluous information or use unnecessary technical terminology.

Constructing an Essay Test. An essay test requires the student to read a question or problem, think about it, and then write a response. Essay questions require the student to (1) make comparisons, (2) supply definitions, (3) make interpretations, (4) make evaluations, and (5) explain relationships.

An essay test can be used to assess a student's higher-order mental processes: application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. An essay test can also measure the student's ability to select and organize ideas in writing. The format has the following limitations:

1. It allows the student too much leeway in answering questions.
2. It may not cover all the content and objectives deemed important by the teacher.
3. It is time consuming to score.
4. It lends itself to subjective grading or measurement.

Use the following guidelines in constructing an essay test:

1. Think carefully about what you want to accomplish with the test.
2. Consider the background and ability of the group to be tested.
3. Identify the instructional objectives to be measured.
4. Make sure that the content of the question is related to an important objective of instruction that can be defined in terms of expected student behavior.
5. Design the format of the question so that it is appropriate to its purpose and content.
6. Summarize or outline the desired student response to each question so that you will have a key for scoring acceptable answers.
7. Explain the ground rules to all students, so that they can plan and organize their time.

Deciding Which Type of Test to Use. The following guidelines emphasize the importance of selecting test items that will directly measure each learning outcome and instructional objective:

1. Use a short-answer test when the desired student behavior is to define, name, or describe something.
2. Use multiple-choice items when the desired student behavior is to identify something, distinguish between two categories of things, or match things that are related in some way.
3. Use true-false items when the desired student behavior is to distinguish between fact and opinion and between correct and incorrect procedures (when there are only two possible alternatives).
4. Use a matching test when the desired student behavior is to relate things (dates and events, authors and books, instruments and uses) to one another.

5. Use an *essay* test when the desired student behavior is to analyze, synthesize, evaluate, and organize ideas.

Validity and Reliability in Testing

Before using test information, a teacher should feel confident that the test has measured some specific student performance. Furthermore, the test results must be relevant to the uses the teacher intends to make of this information. These factors are known as *validity* and *reliability*.

Validity is the degree to which the test measured what the teacher wanted the test to measure. A classroom test should be relevant to instructional objectives.

Reliability is the degree of consistency among test scores. A test is reliable when students who obtain high scores on one set of test items also obtain high scores on other sets of presumably equivalent items, and when those who obtain low scores on one set of items also obtain low scores on other sets of similar items.

After a teacher constructs a test, several things need to be done before the test is administered to students. First, the teacher should allow another teacher to review the test to determine whether the test items sample the objectives and subject-matter content. Once the test has been examined by another professional, the next step is to check the test against a set of established criteria, such as those provided in the checklist at the end of this paper.

Using Evaluative Data to Improve Performance

Providing Feedback to the Student. After a teacher evaluates a student's performance, the results must be communicated to the student. This step requires some preparation if it is to produce useful results. Before attempting to provide feedback to a student, a teacher should do four things:

1. Estimate what kinds of results will be most likely to facilitate learning.
2. Decide which evaluation information the student can understand and use.
3. Plan the sequence of presentation.
4. Present the results to the student, together with any necessary explanation.

This feedback process, often referred to as cooperative evaluation, allows teachers and students to critically examine their work together and make judgments about its strengths and weaknesses. Feedback may involve conveying the following information to the student:

1. The extent to which the student has attained various objectives.

2. The student's aptitudes and abilities as they are related to approaching learning tasks.

3. Behavior patterns or characteristics that affect learning, such as study habits and perseverance.

The feedback process may convey the following kinds of information to the teacher:

1. The student's success in learning specific content.

2. The aspects of the social studies curriculum that are most useful for the student.

3. The quality of the learning environment.

4. The extent to which the student has learned certain information or developed an attitude or a skill.

5. The level of understanding the student possesses before beginning a unit or class in social studies.

6. The most productive ways of guiding the direction of investigation or planning the specific directions of study in a unit.

During the feedback process, the teacher and the student can identify areas where the student needs help and arrange experiences to meet the student's needs. Because new social studies experiences are built on previous experiences, teacher evaluation gives direction to plans for future learning activities. Teacher evaluation also reveals objective evidence that can be shared with parents. Here are some examples of items that might be contained in a teacher's grade book or a student's folder for evaluation purposes:

1. Review of the student's notes on films, field trips, etc.

2. Selected workbook exercises.

3. Selected classroom exercises, such as graphs, time lines, and drawings or paintings that summarize social studies experiences or illustrate ideas.

4. Logs of social studies reading, committee work, and special work assignments.

5. Special maps.
6. Written essays.
7. Test papers.

In scheduled conferences, teacher and parents should study test results, anecdotal records, checklists, and samples of a student's work to look for evidence of interest, initiative, creativity, problems, and needs. The teacher can discuss with parents the extent and quality of the student's knowledge of useful social studies information and ability to use various social studies skills. When the teacher can give parents firsthand evidence of a student's performance and achievement in an area of learning, parents can be more objective in evaluating their child's growth, and they are likely to acquire a keener insight into the objectives of the social studies program.

The importance of evaluation and feedback in social studies goes beyond teacher-student evaluation of stated objectives and shared feedback; it extends to other important aspects of social studies--to progress toward the student's development of new understandings, attitudes, behaviors, and skills; to selection of further experiences to meet identified needs; to accumulation of evaluative data to be shared with parents; and to development of the social studies curriculum on a long-range basis.

CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATING INFORMAL CLASSROOM TESTS

The Test Plan	Yes	No
1. Does the plan include the instructional objectives and content that will be measured?	___	___
2. Does the table of specifications indicate the emphasis to be given to each instructional objective and to each content area?	___	___
3. Will the test assess the mastery of the instructional objectives (skills, knowledge, understanding)?	___	___
The Test Items		
4. Are the test items appropriate for the learning outcomes to be measured?	___	___
5. Do the items measure a representative sample of the instructional objectives and subject-matter content?	___	___
6. Are the items of appropriate difficulty for the learning outcomes to be measured?	___	___
7. Are the items that measure the same instructional objectives grouped together in the test?	___	___
8. Is the answer to each item one on which experts (or other teachers) would agree?	___	___
9. Do the items present clear and definite tasks to be performed?	___	___
10. Are the items free from technical defects (clues, ambiguity, inappropriate reading level)?	___	___
11. Are the items of each type consistent with the guidelines for constructing that type of item?	___	___
12. Are the items numbered in a consistent style?	___	___
13. Are all items free of cultural and sexual bias?	___	___
The Test		
14. Are specific, clear directions provided for each section of the test and for the test as a whole?	___	___
15. Are the test items arranged in order of increasing difficulty within each section of the test and within the test as a whole to the extent possible?	___	___
16. Does the layout of the items on the page contribute to ease of reading and scoring?	___	___